STUDIES IN HADĪTH METHODOLOGY AND LITERATURE

CONTENTS

		Page
	roduction	1
Abl	breviation	iii
Tra	ansliteration	iv
	Part I: <i>Hadīth</i> Methodology	
1.	Hadith, its Meaning, Concept, and Authority	1
2.		9
3.	Taḥammul al-'Ilm, Carrying of Knowledge of Ahādīth	16
4.	Recording of Aḥādīth	25
5.	Isnād System (Chain of Transmitters)	32
6.	Hadith Criticism: History and Methodology	46
7.	Grading of Scholars and Its Impact on Grading of Aḥādīth	58
8.	Fabrication of Hadith: Causes and Means of Elimination	68
	Part II: Ḥadīth Literature	
1.	Earlier Hadith Books: What Happened to Them?	73
2.	Imām Malik b. Anas	. 81
3.	Ahmad b. Muhammad b. Hanbal	84
4.	Imām Bukhari	87
5 .	Abul Husain Muslim b. al-Hajjāj al-Nisāpuri	94
6.	Abu 'Abdur Rahman Ahmad b. Shu'aib b. 'Ali b. Sinan	
	b. Bahr al-Khurasani an-Anasa'i	97
7.	Abu Dawud Sulaimān b. al-Ash'ath Al-Azdi as-Sijistānī	99
8.	Muhammad b. 'Isa b. Saura b. Musā b. al-Dahhak al-Tirmidhī	103
0	ALS (ALGERED NO. 1	105

. 10.	Abul Qasin Sulaimān b. Ahmad b. Ayyūb al-Tabarānī al-Lakhamī		10
11.	Abū as-Saʻādāt al-Mubārak b. Muhammad b. 'Abdul Karī		
	mal Jazarī (Ibn al-Athīr al Jazarī)		11
12.	'Ali b. Abú Bakr b. Sulaimān al-Haithamī		11
13.	Jalāluddīn 'Abdur Rahmān b. Kamāluddīn As-Suyuti	ř v	1
14.	Books on Subjects Related to Hadith	• "	1
Bil	oliography		12

INTRODUCTION

A tremendous amount of literature is available in Arabic on the methodology of Hadith but our new generation whose majority does not know Arabic is unable to benefit from it. Even those who speak Arabic find it difficult to use these books due to the terminology used in them. Only a few books on science of Hadith have been written in English and most of them seem to be meant to confuse the readers. The only one in English which can claim scholarly merit is one by Professor Zubair Siddiqi. I read it some 15 years ago, but it is out of print now and unavailable. Therefore, I have written Studies in Hadith Methodology and Literature to fulfill the need of College students, as well as that of educated laymen. I have avoided unnecessary details, and technical language as far as possible. I hope its careful reading would eliminate most of the doubts which have been created, deliberately or out of ignorance, by Orientalists and others and would provide basic knowledge of the subject. However, it would be naive to think that after reading this book one would gain the capacity to criticise the Hadith.

The book has been divided into two parts. In Part One, I deal with the subject of $Had\bar{\imath}th$ Methodology. In Part Two, I discuss the literature, introducing the six principal books, as well as six others which had great significance and represent a stage in the compilation of $Had\bar{\imath}th$ books. Those interested in the early recording of $had\bar{\imath}th$ may go through my book Studies in Early $Had\bar{\imath}th$ Literature while the problem of $isn\bar{\imath}d$ has been discussed in my work On Schacht's Origins of Mahammadan Jurisprudence. Much valuable information on the criticism of $had\bar{\imath}th$ may be found in the introduction to $Kit\bar{\imath}ab$ al- $Tamy\bar{\imath}z$ of Imām Muslim. Thus these early works have contributed to many chapters of the present work.

Two of my colleagues Dr. M. S. Al-A'wwa and Dr. Ja'far Shaikh Idrīs took the trouble to read the manuscript. I have benefited from their criticism and clarification. May Allah reward them for their help.

Thanks are also due to Dr. El-Tigani Abugideiri on whose initiative and persistent demand the book was written. One should not fail to mention Mr. Abdur Rahman of WAMY who worked hard to type the draft from my poor handwriting.

Finally, I apologize to the readers for giving my consent to the publication of this book even though the words have not been printed after the name of the Prophet or after the words "the Prophet". I regret this omission but at the time of writing this introduction it was too late to fill in the words of the blessing. May Allah forgive me.

1st Rajab, 1397/1977

M. M. AZAMI College of Education University of Riyadh Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

List of Abbreviations

A. $Ab\bar{u}$

A.D. Abū Dāwūd, Sunan

A. Awana Abū 'Awāna

b. bir

BU Al-Bukhārī, Şaḥiḥ

Dārimī Sunan

Hanbal Ibn Ḥanbal, Musnad I.M. Ibn, Māja, Sunan

Mīzān Dhahabī, Mizān al-L'tidāl

MU Muslim, Şaḥīḥ Nas Nasa'ī, Sunan

Rāzī See Ibn Abū Hātim al-Rāzī

Al-Jarh wa al-Ta'dil

Tayālisī Abū Dāwud Ṭayālisī, Sunan Tawsat Tabarānī, al-Mu'jam al-Awsat

Tir Tirmidhī, Sunan

Tkabir Tabarānī, al-Mu'jam al-Kabīr

Studies Azami, Studies in Early Ḥadith Literature

Zaid Zaid b. 'Alī, Musnad

Transliteration

The transliteration of Arabic words in this book is according to the system indicated in the Encyclopedia of Islam.

Part One: Hadīth Methodology

CHAPTER I

HADITH, ITS MEANING, CONCEPT AND AUTHORITY

The Word 'Hadīth' and its Meaning

The Arabic word *hadīth* literally means communication, story, conversation: religious or secular, historical or recent.

Whenever used as adjective it means new. It has been used in the Qur'an 23 times. Here are a few examples:

Usage of the Word hadith in the Qur'an for:

a)	Religious communication, m	message or the Qur'an:	
	Almighty Allah says:.	الله نزل أحسن الحديث كتابــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ	•
	"Allah has revealed (time a	after time) the most beautiful hadīth (Me	es
sage	e) in the form of a book" ¹ .		
_	Almighty Allah says:	ندرني ومن يكذب بهذا الحديث	و

"Then leave Me alone with such as reject this hadīth"2. (meaning the Qur'ān) 3.

b) Story of a secular or general nature: واذا رأيت الذين يخوصون في آياتنا Almighty Allah says فاعرص عنهم حتى يخوصوا في حديث غيره

"And whenever you meet such as indulge in (blasphemous) talk about Our Message, turn thy back upon them until they begin hadīth (conversation) of some other things".

^{1.} The Qur'an, Zumr, 23.

^{2.} Ibid., Qalam, 44.

^{3.} Ibn Kathir, Tafsir, vii, 91.

^{4.} The Qur'an, An'am, 68.

2

c) Historical story:

وهل أتاك حديث مـــوســ Almighty Allah says "Has the hadith (story) of Musa reached thee?"5.

Current story or conversation:

واذ أسر النبي الى بعص ازواجه حديثا Almighty Allah say "When the Prophet confined a hadith (a secret) to one of his wives."6.

We may conclude that this word has been used in the Qur'an in the sense of story or communication or message, be it religious or secular, from a remote past or of the present time.

Usage of the Word 'Hadīth' in the Sayings of the Prophet

The word was used in the same sense by the Prophet, as it has been used in the Qur'an. Here are a few examples.

a) Religious communication:

The Prophet says: المديث كتاب الليم "The best hadīth is the book of Allah"

يبلغه فرب مبلغ أحفظ له من ساسع And the Prophet says: غفر الله امرًا سمع منا حديثا فحفظه حتى

Allah illumines a man who hears hadīth from me, preserves it carefully and passes it on to others . . . s.

b) Secular or general conversation or tale:

من استمع الى حديث قوم وهم له كارهون The Prophet says: أويفرون سنه ، صحب في اذنه الأنك

"One who tries to eavesdrop on the hadith (conversation) of the people when they dislike his doing so and want to keep away from him, in the Hereafter hot copper would be poured in his ear"9.

c) Historical story:

حد ثوا عن بني اسرائيل .The Prophet says "You may transmit hadīth from Banu Isrā'il"10

Current story, secret or conversation: d)

ان احدث الرجل الحديث ثم التغت The Prophet says:

فهسى أمانسة

"If someone tells a hadith (secret) then goes his way, his words become a trust"11.

9. Bukhārī, Tab'īr, 45. 10. Bukhārī, Anbiyā, 50.

11. Tirmidhi, Birr, 39.

Ibid., Ţāhā, 9.

^{6.} Ibid., *Taḥrīm*, 3.

^{7.} Bukhāri, Adab, 70. 8. Hanbal, I, 437.

It is clear now, in the light of the above mentioned examples that the word hadith has in its meaning the sense of story or communication.

In the early days of Islam the stories and communications of the Prophet (hadith) dominated all other kinds of communications, so this word began to be used almost exclusively for the narration about or from the Prophet¹².

The Term Hadith and its Meaning According to Muhaddithin and Jurists

According to $Muhaddith\bar{i}n$ it stands for 'what was transmitted on the authority of the Prophet, his deeds, sayings, tacit approval, or description of his sifat (features) meaning his physical appearance. However, physical appearance of the Prophet is not included in the definition used by the jurists¹³.

Thus hadith literature means the literature which consists of the narrations of the life of the Prophet and the things approved by him. However, the term was used sometimes in much broader meaning in the sense to cover the narrations about the Companions and Successors as well¹⁴.

Sometimes some other words were also used in the same sense, such as khabar and athar. Most of the scholars used these three terms: hadīth, khabar and athar as synonymous. However, some scholars mostly of Khurasan region used to differentiate between khabar and athar. They used the khabar in the sense of hadīth, and the term athar restricted to the sayings and decisions of the Companions. However, there is another key word, though a little different from the term hadīth in the meaning, yet used mostly as synonymous, that is the term sunna. Due to the importance of this term we shall discuss it in some detail.

The Word Sunna, its Meaning and Different Usage

Sunna, according to Arabic lexicographers means: 'a way, course, rule, mode, or manner, of acting or conduct of life'15.

In the Qur'an, the word *sunna* and its plural *sunan* have been used sixteen times. In all of these cases it is used in sense of established course of rule, mode of life, and line of conduct¹⁶.

^{12.} See Zafar Ansārī, Islamic juristic terminology, p. 5

^{13.} See Al-Jazā'irī, Taujih an-Nazar, p. 2.

^{14.} Jurjānī, Risāla, 1. for detailed reference see, Al-Azami, Studies, 302.

^{15.} Lane, iv 1438.

^{16.} See Penrice, Dictionery of the Koran, p. 73.

In Arabic literature, especially in the early *Ḥadīth-Fiqh* books it has been used in different meanings, such as:

Sharī'a.

Established non-compulsory religious practice without its being fard or $w\bar{a}jib$ (compulsory).

That which is proved by means of sunna, one of the four Sources of Law.¹⁷

Ţarīqat ad-Dīn.

Model behaviour of the Prophet.

According to Abul Baqa' the term sunna is not restricted as such to the sunna of the Prophet or of his companions. In Shāfi'ī however, the use of the term sunna is restricted to the sunna of the Prophet alone. According to Arabic lexicography, as we have seen, it means 'mode of life', etc. Therefore, when Almighty Allah ordered Muslims to obey the Prophet and to take his life as a good model and follow it, the expression 'sunna of the Prophet' came into use. The usage began in the life of the Prophet, and it was used by him.

Sometimes the Arabic definite article (AL) was affixed to the word sunna to denote the sunna of the Prophet, while the general use of the word continued, though decreasing day by day. At the end of the second century it began to be used almost exclusively in the legal books for the norms set by the Prophet or norms deduced from the Prophet's norm.

As sunna means the mode of life, and the sunna of the Prophet means the mode of the life of the Prophet, and hadīth means the narration of the life of the Prophet, these two terms were used almost interchangeably, though there is a slight difference between them. For a hadīth may not contain any sunna or a single hadīth may contain more than one sunna. However, to avoid confusion, we shall use them as interchangeable as they have been used by early scholars as well as by the present ones.

If hadith literature stands for the narration concerning the Prophet and sometimes his Companions, then what do the sciences of hadith stand for? To err is human. In reporting, narrating and recording the life and conduct of the Prophet some mistakes were committed even by the most sincere scholars, not to speak of some unscrupulous men who deliberately fabricated materials pretending to be concerned with the Prophet. Therefore, the science of hadith was developed, to evaluate every single statement ascribed to the Prophet.

^{17.} Thanawi, Kashshaf, 703ff.

Why was this painstaking task done? There have been many great rulers and leaders but nothing of this sort was developed to differentiate between correct and incorrect statements attributed to them. The answer to this question is the unique position of the *sunna* of the Prophet, which demanded this care.

The Authority of the Prophet

The scholars are unanimous that the authority of the Qur'ān is binding on all Muslims. The authority of the Prophet comes next only to the Qur'ān. His authority is not derived through the community's acceptance of the Prophet as a person of authority. His authority is expressed through Divine will. Allah describes His Prophet's position in the following way:

The Prophet Muhammad and His Position According to the Qur'an

a) Expounder of the Qur'an

The Prophet is the expounder of the Qur'an appointed by Allah. Almighty Allah says: وأنزلنا اليك الذكر لتبين للناس مانزل اليهم ولعلهم يتفكرون

"We have revealed unto thee the Remembrance, (the Qur'an,) that you may explain to mankind that which has been revealed for them." 18

The Qur'an commands—if we may take salāt (prayer) as an example—the establishment of salāt (prayer) in numerous verses, but does not prescribe the details for the method of praying. The Prophet's task was to demonstrate the forms of prayer practically as well as orally.

b) Legislator

Almighty Allah, speaking about the legislative power of the Prophet says: ويحل لهم الطبيات ويحرم عليهم الخبائث ويضع عنهم اصرهـــم

"He will make lawful for them all good things and prohibit for them only the foul, and will relieve them of their burden and the fetters which they used to wear" 19. In this verse we find that the legislative authority is bestowed upon the Prophet. So he acts as the society's law giver. The Prophet initiated certain things which were later mentioned by the Qur'an as the standardized practices of the community, e.g. the practice of Adhan to which the Qur'an refers only as the 'existing practice' 20. This instance proves the legislative authority of the Prophet and that his deeds were sanctioned by Allah.

^{18.} The Qur'an, Nahl, 44. 19. Ibid., vii, 157. 20. See Ibid., al-Jum'a, 9.

c) Model behavior for Muslim Society

The Qur'an refers to the life pattern of the Prophet.

"A noble model you have in Allah's Apostle, for all whose hope is in Allah, and in the Final Day, and who often remember Allah."21

If we consider the Prophet as the model for the community, then Muslims have to follow his example in every way, especially as they have been specifically commanded to do so by Allah. These three essentials combined in the person of the Prophet lead to the inevitable conclusion that Muslim Society must follow the Prophet in every walk of life. Almighty Allah did not leave the question open to debate. He explicitly ordered total obedience to the Prophet.

d) Total obedience to the Prophet
Almighty Allah says: 22 وما ارسلنا من رسول الا ليطاع باذن باذن الليسة
"We sent no messenger save that he should be obeyed by Allah's leave."

He further says: قل أطيعوا الله والرسول فان تولوا فان الله لا يحب الكافريسين

"Say, 'Obey Allah, and the Messenger.' But if they turn their backs, Allah loves not the unbelievers"23.

And says. واطيعوا الله والرسول لعلكم ترحميون "Obey Allah and the Messenger haply so you will find mercy"24.

He further says: منك

ياايها الذين أمنوا أطيعوا الله وأطيعوا الرسول وأولى الأمر منكم فان تنازعتم في شيء فردوه الى الله والرسول ان كنتم تؤ منون بالله واليوم الأخر ذلك خير وأحسن تأويلا . "

"O believers, obey Allah, and obey the Messenger and those in authority among you. If you quarrel on anything, refer it to Allah and the Messenger, if you believe in Allah and the Last Day; that is better, and fairer in the issue"25.

In the light of these verses it becomes clear that the commands of Allah as well as the proven commands of the Prophet are binding on a Muslim. He has equally to obey both of them. The Prophet's total life is a good example for all Muslims, and ought to be followed by them. A Muslim should not feel hesitant in carrying out the orders of the Prophet. Obedience here means full and not half-hearted submission.

^{21.} Ibid., al-Aḥzāb, 21. 22. Ibid., An-Nisā, 64. 23. Ibid., al-Imrān, 32.

^{24.} Ibid., Ibid., al-'Imrān, 132.

Ibid., al-Nisā' 59, there are so many references in the al-Qur'ān that the question does not really need any reference on this subject.

"But no, by thy Lord! they will not believe till they make thee the judge regarding disagreement between them and find in themselves no resistance against the verdict, but accept in full submission."

Before concluding this discussion, it is necessary to quote one more verse from the Qur'an. Allah says: 27 وما أتاكم الرسول فخذوه وما نهاكم عنه فانتهوا واتقوا الله ان الله شديد العقاب

"And whatsoever the Messenger gives you, take it. And whatsoever he forbids, abstain from it."

These are some of the many Qur'anic verses which state the authority of the Prophet and emphasize the fact that his whole life, decisions, judgements and commands have binding authority and ought to be followed in all spheres of life by Muslim individuals and communities as well as by Muslim States.

It is obvious that this authority of the Prophet does not rest on acceptance by the community or on the opinion of certain lawyers or scholars or the founders of the law schools. This point has been made clear by the Qur'an. For this reason, the Muslim community accepted the authority of the Prophet from the very day the mission of the Prophet began and has accepted all his verbal commands, his deeds, his tacit approval as the way of life, a binding factor and a model which ought to be followed.

All the activities of the Prophet, were covered by the *sunna* or the *sunna* of the Prophet, which was and still is, and will remain one of the main sources of Islamic law, second only to the Qur'ān.

Sunna of the Prophet

As I have mentioned earlier, the term 'sunna' as such is not restricted to the sunna of the Prophet²⁸. Therefore we find this term sometimes used for others than the Prophet as well, which resulted in some misunderstanding by modern scholars. It is claimed by some modern scholars that Shafi'i was the first to define sunna as the model behavior of the Prophet. The

^{26.} Ibid., al-Nisā' 65.

^{27.} Ibid., al-Hashr 7. This verse was sent down in the context of the booty of war but it applies to all the cases as the Prophet explained. See Hanabal i, 415. Ibn Kathīr, Tafsīr, vi, 604. Therefore it would be erroneous to confine it to the case of booty only. This is the general trend of the Qur'ān, a verse came for a certain occasion but it has general application.

^{28.} For detailed study, see, A'zamī, On Schacht's Origins of Muhammadan Jurisprudence.

problem would not have arisen if they had realized that the concept of sunna predated the definition of that term.

The powers of legislation, for example, are determined by the constitutions of modern states. When constitutions endorse the legislative powers and the range of their legislation, nobody can challenge them or claim rightfully that he is not to be bound by them. Thus—according to Islamic concepts—it is not for the lawyers but for Almighty Allah who is the Law-Giver to determine the legislative authority if there is any.

The Qur'ān never says that the source of law is sunna so that the early lawyers differed in its definition. The Qur'ān, however, speaks time after time of obedience to the Messenger of Allah, which is obligatory, and mentions his example which ought to be followed. Therefore, even if one agrees that the early scholars used this word or term in a broad sense, it should not create any perplexity because the source of law is not this particular 'word' or 'term' but the concept which derives its authority directly from the Qur'ān.

When we come to this concept, we find it is clearly endorsed by the Qur'ān, as we have seen earlier, and explicitly accepted by early lawyers. Hence we may conclude that the *sunna* of the Prophet is a must for Muslims, be they individuals, communities or states.

The aḥādīth of the Prophet are repositories for the sunna of the Prophet, and therefore he must have made arrangements for its diffusion in the Muslim community. We shall discuss this point in the next chapter.

CHAPTER II

THE PROPHET AND HIS AḤĀDĪTH TEACHING, LEARNING AND DIFFUSION

Transmission of the Hadith of the Prophet

The hadith, the storeroom of the Prophet's sunna served an essential need of the Muslims, be they individuals or communities. In this chapter we shall try to sketch related activities and describe the means which were used to teach $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ and to learn and preserve them, and the factors which helped the Companions in their task.

Teaching of the Ahādīth by the Prophet

The methods used by the Prophet to teach his sunna or hadith may be put in three categories:

- 1. Verbal teaching
- 2. Written medium (Dictation to scribes)
- 3. Practical demonstration.
- 1. Teaching of sunna by the Prophet in verbal form

The Prophet himself was the teacher of his sunna¹. To make memorizing and understanding easy he used to repeat important things thrice². After teaching the Companions he used to listen to what they had learnt³. Deputations arriving from outlying areas were given in charge of Madinites, not only to be accommodated but also for education in the Qur'ān and the sunna. The Prophet asked them questions to discover the extent of their learning⁴.

2. Teaching of sunna by the Prophet by written method

All the letters of the Prophet to kings, rulers, chieftains, and Muslim governors can be included in the teaching of the *sunna* by written media.

^{1.} See Al-Khatīb, Al-Faqīh ii, 124.

^{2.} BU, 'Ilm, 30.

^{3.} BU, Wudu', 75.

^{4.} See, Hanbal iv, 206.

Some of those letters are very lengthy and contain legal matters concerning $Zak\bar{a}t$, taxation, forms of worship, etc.⁵ We can estimate the numbers of letters which were probably sent by the Prophet and the recording activities related to them if we remember that he had at least 45 scribes who wrote for him at sometime or the other⁶. In the same category, we may put what was dictated by the Prophet to different Companions, such as 'Alī b. Abū Ṭalīb, and some of the writings of 'Abdullah b. 'Amr b. Āl-'Aṣ̄, and the Prophet's orders for delivering a copy of his *Khuṭba* to Abū Shāh, a Yaminite⁷.

3. Teaching of sunna by the Prophet by practical demonstration

As far as practical demonstration is concerned, the Prophet taught the method of ablution, prayers, fasting and pilgrimage etc. In every walk of life, the Prophet gave practical lessons in excellence, with clear instructions to follow his practice. He said, 'pray as you see me praying's. He further said, 'learn from me the rituals of pilgrimage's.

In answer to many questions, he used to tell the questioner to stay with him and learn by observing his practice¹⁰.

Measures Taken by the Prophet for the Diffusion of Sunna

1. Establishment of Schools

'Schools' were established by the Prophet in Madina very soon after his arrival¹¹. His general policy was to send teachers and preachers to different areas outside Madina.

For Example delegates were sent to 'Adhal and Qāra in 3 A.H., to Bīr Ma'ūna in 4 A.H., to Najrān and to Yeman and Hadramaut in 9 A.H.¹².

2. The Prophet's Directions about Diffusion of Knowledge

The Prophet says: "Pass on knowledge from me even if it is only one verse" 13.

The same emphasis is noticeable in his oration at the farewell Hajj where the Prophet said: "Those who are present (here) should convey the

^{5.} See Hamīdulla, al-Wathā'iq al-Siyāsiyah.

^{6.} Al-Azami, Kuttāb al Nabī, 25-112.

^{7.} BU. 'Ilm, 39.

^{8.} BU. Adhān, 18.

^{9.} MU. Hajj, 310.

^{10.} See for example, MU. Masājid, 176.

^{11.} See for detail, al Azamī, Studies in Early Hadīth literature, p. 3-4.

^{12.} See for detail, Azami, Studies, p. 4-5.

^{13.} BU. Anbiyā', 50.

message to those who are absent.¹⁴. It was therefore, a common practice among Companions to tell absentees about the Prophet's deeds and sayings. Delegations coming to Madina were ordered to teach their people after returning. For instance, Mālik b. Al-Huwairith was ordered by the Prophet, at his departure, to teach the people, a duty which he carried on even long after the death of the Prophet¹⁵. The same kind of direction was given to other delegations as well.¹⁶ When the delegation of 'Abdul Qaīs came to the Prophet, it asked the Prophet that they should be taught so that they may convey teachings from the Prophet and teach their followers¹⁷.

3. Creation of incentive for teachers and students

The Prophet not only gave directions to educate the people but also mentioned great rewards for teachers and students.

He stated that learning and the pursuit of knowledge is obligatory on every Muslim.¹⁸ One who conceals knowledge is liable to go to hell¹⁹, a fact which is mentioned in the Qur'ān.²⁰

(a) Rewards for students:

The Prophet said: "If any one pursues a path in search of knowledge Allah will thereby make easy for him a path to paradise, and the angels spread their wings from good pleasure with one who seeks knowledge, and all the inhabitants of the heavens and the earth, even fish in the depths of water, ask forgiveness for him."²¹

(b) Rewards for teachers:

In this regard, the Prophet said: "When a man dies, his acts come to an end, with three exceptions: $Sadaqa\ J\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}ya$ (recurring charity), knowledge from which benefit continues to be reaped, and the prayers of a good son for him."²²

(c) Threat of Punishment:

For those who refuse to be tempted into the educative process even by

^{14.} BU. 'Ilm, 9.

^{15.} See Ibn Sa'd, vii, I, 29-30.

^{16.} BU. 'Ilm, 25.

^{17.} BU. Manāqib, 5.

^{18.} Ibn Mãja, Sunan, Intr. 17.

^{19.} Hanbal, II, 263.

^{20.} The Qur'an, II, 159, 174.

^{21.} Hanbal, V, 196.

^{22.} MU. Wasiya, 14. It means both male and female.

these rewards, the Prophet seems to have indicated punishment which would inevitably come as a result of not teaching and not learning.²³

I have now stated how the Prophet taught his *sunna* to the Muslim community and the measures he took to spread it and to make the people active in its pursuit and what sort of rewards and punishment were mentioned. Let us see what was the response of the community to all these, and how the *sunna* of the Prophet was received by the Companions.

How the Sunna of the Prophet was Received by the Companions

Some of the measures taken by the Prophet for the diffusion of *sunna* have been mentioned. Now we shall see what methods were applied by the recipients and what were the factors which helped them to learn those *sunna*.

It ought to be remembered that people always try to watch and thus remember the sayings and deeds of their beloved one. In this regard one can say with certainty that Muhammad was the most beloved person on earth in his community, and no one can stand beside him in this regard in the long history of humanity. Here I am going to quote a statement of one of his Companions to one of his deadly foes at that time.

Safwān b. Umayya bought Zayd (the Companion of the Prophet who was betrayed and taken prisoner by polytheists) to kill him in revenge for his father Ummaya by Khalaf. Safwān sent him with a freedman of his called Nistās to al-Tan'īm and they brought him out of the Haram to kill him. A number of Quraysh gathered, among whom was Abū Sufyan b. Harb, who said to Zayd as he was brought out to be killed, "I adjure you by Allah, Zayd, don't you wish that Muhammad was with us now in your place so that we might cut off his head, and that you were with your family?" Zayd answered, "By Allah, I don't wish that Muhammad be in my place now or that even a thorn should hurt him or I were sitting with my family." Abu Sufyān used to say, 'I have never seen a man who was so loved as Muhammad's Companions loved him; Nistās killed him (Zayd), Allah have mercy upon him."²⁴

^{23.} al-Haithamī, Majma' al-Zawā'id, i, 164. This hadīth has a dubious isnād and is not well authenticated.

^{24.} Ibn Isḥāq, Sirat Rasūlullah, translated by A. Guillume, p. 427-8, However I have used the word Allah for God, not as it was translated, as well as changed the translation in some places.

Thus the Prophet was the most beloved one in his community. The community's involvement in worldly pursuits was still minimal and thus a wider scope and greater opportunity for learning was available. Moreover, the Arabs had excellent memories. They used to remember by heart many verses of their tribal poets and others. When we recollect all these factors, as well as methods applied by the Prophet to teach his *sunna*, it becomes clear that its learning was very easy for the Muslim community. However, they were not content with these natural facilities but utilized every possible method for its learning and preservation.

Companions Learning of the Aḥādīth

The Companions used all the three methods of learning: (a) memorization (b) recording (c) through practise, following the method applied by the Prophet for teaching the *sunna*.

(a) Learning by memorizing:

The Companions used to listen to every word of the Prophet with utmost care. They used to learn the Qur'ān and the hadīth from the Prophet mostly in the mosque. When the Prophet went away for any reason, they started to recollect what they had learned. This practice has been described very well by Mu'āwīya²⁵. The same evidence can be seen in the statement of Abū al-Dardā'.²⁶ This practice can be seen in its culmination in the statement of Anas b. Mālik, the servant of the Prophet. He says, "We sat with the Prophet, maybe sixty persons in number and the Prophet taught them hadīth. Later on when he went out for any necessity, we used to memorize it amongst us, when we departed it was as if cultivated in our hearts."²¹

The Companions faced the problems of daily life and its requirements as does everybody. So it was not practically possible for all of them to attend the circle of the Prophet on every occasion. Therefore, those who were absent sometimes from the educational circle of the Prophet used to learn from those who were present. This process has been described very well by the Companion Barā' b. 'Āzib²⁵. Some of them came to an agreement between themselves to attend the circle of the Prophet in shifts, as we find in the case of 'Umar²ゥ.

^{25.} al-Hākim, al-Mustadrak, i, 94.

^{26.} Ibn Hanbal, Musnad, vi, 443.

^{27.} Khatīb, al-Jāmī', 43a.

^{28.} Ibn Hanbal, 'Ilal, 96b; al-Häkim, al-Mustadarak, 1, 127.

^{29.} Ibn Sa'd, VIII, 136, BU. 'Ilm, 27.

This practice reached its highest point in the case of the Companion Sulait. A piece of land was given to him by the Prophet. He used to stay there for some time and then return to Madina to learn what had been taught in his absence. The Companions used to inform him about the newly revealed portions of the Qur'an and the judgment of the Prophet in different cases. He was so embarrassed that he requested the Prophet that the land should be taken back from him as it stopped him from the attendance in the Prophet's circle.³⁰

This was the atmosphere and environment in which the teaching and learning of *ḥadīth* was carried on.

(b) Companions' learning of aḥādīth through writing:

The Companions learned the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ by recording it in writing as well. There were good numbers of Companions who recorded the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ of the Prophet.³¹

(c) Companions' learning of aḥādīth by practice

It is essential to remember that the Companions put into practice whatever they learned by heart or by writing. The knowledge in Islam is for practice, not knowledge for the sake of knowledge, and the Companions knew this well. It is sufficient to note that Ibn 'Umar took eight years to learn the second *sura* of the Qur'ān³².

This is a sketch of how the *ḥadīth* was learned by the Companions in the lifetime of the Prophet. After his death, the pattern remained almost the same except that the Messenger of Allah was no more among them. Now we shall throw some light on the subject in the period after the Prophet's death.

Learning of $Ah\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}th$ in the Period of the Companions Recollection of $Ah\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}th$

Recollection of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}th$ was carried out in the time of the Companions as it was in the days of the Prophet. Abū Hurairah used to divide the night in three portions; one third for sleeping, one third for prayer and one third for the recollection of the $had\bar{\iota}th$ of the Prophet.

'Umar and Abū Mūsā al-Ash'arī memorized hadīth through the night till the morning. We find the same in the case of Ibn 'Abbās and Zaid b. Arqam. Ibn Buraidah reports a similar situation with Mu'āwīya in the Syrian city of Ḥims.

^{30.} Abu 'Ubaid, al-Amwāl, p. 272-3.

^{31.} For detail see al-Azami, Studies 34-80.

^{32.} Suyutī, Durr al-Manthur, I, 21 quoting Muw. of Mālik.

On the other hand, we find a good number of the Companions such as 'Ali b. Abu Tālīb, Ibn Mas'ūd, Ibn 'Abbās, and Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī advising the Successors on the memorizing of $had\bar{\imath}th$. So the same pattern of learning of $had\bar{\imath}th$ continued in the time of the successors. They used to memorize $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ either in groups or individually.

Official Patronage for the Teaching of the Qur'an and the Sunna of the Prophet

'Umar, the second Caliph, entrusted his governors with the duty of teaching the Qur'ān and the *sunna* of the Prophet². He used to send teachers for this purpose in good numbers. He even sent a teacher to beduoins to find out the extent of their knowledge of the Qur'ān³.

Non-Official Activities

All the Companions who had knowledge of *ḥadīth* of the Prophet took part in its diffusion whenever they had the opportunity or felt the necessity. However, they may be put into two groups.

Those who used to impart knowledge when they thought that the people were in need of it. They felt compelled to teach because they knew very well the sin of hiding the knowledge.

Those who gave much time for this purpose and used to teach regularly.

At this point we need to pay attention to some new factors. After the Prophet's death his Companions took up his mission. A quarter of a century after the death of the Prophet, Islam spread to Afghanistan, a part of what is now the U.S.S.R., Iran, Syria, Iraq, Egypt, and Libya. The Companions of the Prophet were pioneers in this activity which implies that knowledge of the aḥādīth of the Prophet went with those Companions throughout the Muslim world. It also implies that not all the knowledge of sunna remained in Madina. Probably a certain sunna was known to a particular Companion, who went to Iraq or Egypt or somewhere else. Before the Companions died they entrusted the torch of ahādīth knowledge to the next generation which had to learn and be ready to take the responsibility. However, some unique conditions had been laid down for learning by muhaddithin and these are discussed in the next chapter.

^{1.} For detail see, Al-Azami, Studies, 184.

^{2.} Ibn Sa'd, III, I, 201; 243; Ibn Hanbal, Musnad, I, 48.

^{3.} Ibn Hajar, al-Isābah, Aus b. Khālid al-Tā'ī, No. 332.

CHAPTER III

TAḤAMMUL AL-ILM A CARRYING OF KNOWLEDGE OF AḤĀDĪTH

We have seen earlier how the Prophet taught his $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$ and sunna and how it was received by the Companions. As the Companions were direct disciples of the Prophet, they had the special privilege and duty to spread his teachings. However in later days, as the knowledge of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$ spread all over the Muslim world, gathering of knowledge or collection of $had\bar{a}th$ required much more extensive travelling, so new methods of learning had to be developed. These will be discussed here briefly.

Learning of Aḥādīth in Early Days

For learning of hadith the following eight methods were in use:

- (1) Samā': that is reading by the teacher to the students.
- (2) 'Ard: reading by students to teachers.
- (3) Ijāzah: to permit someone to transmit a hadīth or book on the authority of the scholar without reading by any one.
- (4) Munāwalah: to hand someone the written material to transmit.
- (5) Kitābah: to write aḥādīth for someone.
- (6) I'lām: to inform someone that informer has permission to transmit certain material.
- (7) Wasiyah: to entrust someone his books.
- (8) Wajādah: to find some books or aḥādīth written by someone just as we nowadays discover some manuscripts in a library or somewhere else.

But in the period of the Companions only the first of these methods was in general use, while the use of other methods was negligible. The students stayed near their teachers at all times serving them and learning from them. When they imparted any hadith the students wrote it down or memorized it. Al-Zuhrī says: "People used to sit with Ibn 'Umar, but none dared ask

him questions till someone came from outside and asked him. We sat with Ibn al-Musayyab without questioning him, till someone came and questioned him. The question roused him to impart hadith to us, or he began to impart it at his own will." A little later the most common methods were numbers one and two. There has been a lot of discussion as to whether the first or the second is the best method of learning. In view of some scholars both methods have equal merit and Ṭaḥāwī (d. 328) wrote a booklet on the subject giving his opinion for the equality of both methods. Different terminology was used in transmitting the hadīth to show what method was used in learning the hadīth, as we see later. A man was not entitled to use any hadīth in his literary life if he had not received it by one of the eight above mentioned ways, that is up to number seven. Number eight was not recognized by the scholars. Now we shall discuss these methods in some detail.

(1) Samā': 2 Reading by the Teacher to Students

This method has the following features:

Oral recitation, reading from books, questions and answers, and dictation.

Oral Recitation of Aḥādīth by the Teacher

This practice began to decline from the second half of the second century, though it persisted to a much lesser extent for a long period. Usually, the students were attached to a certain teacher for a very long time, until they were believed to be authorities on the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ of their teachers. Sometimes they were called $R\bar{a}w\bar{i}$ or $\S\bar{a}hib$ of so and so. Even if regular meetings were held for the teaching, only a few $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ were taught in one lesson, say about three or four.

Reading from Books

Reading by the teacher, from his own book, which was preferred.

Reading by the teacher from the student's book, which was either a copy of or a selection from his own work. This method had a great many pitfalls for the teachers who did not learn their $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ by heart. Some students and scholars played tricks. They would insert $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ here and there into the teacher's $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ and hand the book to the teacher for reading, to examine the soundness of his knowledge and memory. Teachers who failed to recognize the additional material were denounced and declared untrustworthy.

^{1.} Studies 284.

Questions and Answers

In this method students used to read a part of the ahādīth and the teacher read it in full.

Dictating the Aḥādīth

Apart from the Prophet's dictation and his Companions' rare dictations of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$, perhaps the Companion Wāthilah b. Asqa' (d.83) was the first who held classes for dictation. This method was not encouraged in the early days because in this way a student could gather much knowledge in a very short time without much effort. It seems that al-Zuhrī was the first to depart from this attitude. About the end of the first century we find him dictating $ah\bar{\imath}ad\bar{\imath}th$, a method which he followed during the rest of his life.

There were certain scholars who had an extreme distaste for dictation and did not allow writing down. There were others who did not transmit $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ until the students wrote them down. Some of them even refused to dictate $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ if the students used wooden boards from which the writing could be erased. There were some others who wrote down $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ and after memorizing erased them. Others used to learn by heart and after memorizing wrote them down. It seems that compared with other methods of the teaching of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$, these were rare and uncommon practices. From the second century onwards, besides the usual method of reading from books, dictations became usual. Sometimes regular classes were held for this purpose.

The Method of Dictation For dictation, two methods were employed: either from a book or from memory. In some cases the students refused to write $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ being dictated from memory, yet it seems that it was the fashion of the time to rely on memory in transmitting or dictating $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$. Perhaps it was a matter of prestige and reputation. This practice resulted in many mistakes owing to the inherent deficiencies of memory. The teachers had to go through their books to refresh their memories. In many cases when they were uncertain they did not dictate.

The Mustamlis The dictation method, due to large audience, gave rise to a new type of work for certain people who were called Mustamlis. They used to repeat the words of the Shaikh in a loud voice to the audience.

To Select Someone for Writing As all the students could not write rapidly, sometimes a fast writer was chosen to take down $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$, while others watched him writing, lest he should make any mistake. Later, either they borrowed the books or copied them in the presence of the owner. In literary circles a class of scribes or $Warr\bar{a}qun$ was found for the purpose of copying, which gave rise to trade in books.

The Correction of Written Copies It seems that the scholars were aware of the importance of revision after copying. Therefore we find them constantly advising their students, even helping them, in revision after copying. We find this practice from a very early stage. 'Urwah (22-93 H.) asked his son Hishām whether or not he revised after copying. Hishām replied, No, upon which 'Urawah said that in fact it meant he did not write down².

After copying or dictating, either the students helped each other to correct the copies or did so under the supervision of their masters.

The Writing Materials It seems that wooden boards were mostly used for writing dictations and taking notes from which, later on, fair copies were made. A special shorthand method was sometimes used to save time and space.

(2) 'Ard: عسرض Reading to Teachers

Another method was that the book was read by the students to the teacher or by a certain man called a 'Qārī', and other students compared ahādīth with their books or only listened attentively. Later they copied from the books. This method was called 'ard. Unfamiliarity with this terminology may cause misunderstanding even to Arabs.

It seems that 'ard was the most common practice from the beginning of the second century. In this case either copies were provided by the teachers themselves as many of them had their own scribes, Kātib or Warrāq, or students had their own books, copied earlier either from the original or from another copy of the same work. In copying they usually made a circular mark after every hadīth. Whenever a student finished the reading of a hadith he made a sign in the circle or somewhere else to show that this hadith had been read to the teacher. This was necessary because even when a student knew ahādīth through books he was not entitled to use those materials for teaching or for his own compilation till he received them through properly recognized methods of learning. If one did not follow this method, he could be accused of stealing hadīth, 'sāriq al-hadīth', which meant that a scholar used materials in teaching or in compiling his book which, even though genuine, were not obtained through the proper way. A modern parallel to this practice is the copyright law. A man can buy a million copies of a book but may not print even a few copies without per-

Khaṭīb Baghdādī, Kifāyah, 237.

^{3.} See for detail, see Azami, Studies.

mission. The early scholars had their own method of copyright, where one could not use materials simply by buying a book⁴.

When a hadith was read more than once the students made additional marks for every reading. Sometimes scholars read the same book several times.

(3) Ijāzah: وَ Permission

In $had\bar{\imath}th$ terminology $Ij\bar{a}zah$ means to permit someone to transmit a $had\bar{\imath}th$ or a book on the authority of a certain scholar who gave this permission, without having read the book to him. There have been different kinds of $Ij\bar{a}zah$. Until the third century, it is difficult to find signs of the $Ij\bar{a}zah$ system, but it was widely used later. There have been differences of opinions about its validity.

This system, in certain cases, provided a kind of safeguard for the text. For example when A permitted B to transmit $\S a h \bar{\imath} h$ of Bukhārī through the authority of A, then B ought to find out a copy of $\S a h \bar{\imath} h$ of Bukhārī which contained a reading certificate including the name of A. In this way the correct text could be kept free of alterations.

(4) Munawala: منا ولية Handing the Book to a Student

When someone gave a student a manuscript along with the authority to transmit it. For example Zuhrī (51-124) gave his manuscripts to several scholars, like Thaurī, Auzā'ī and 'Ubaidullah b. 'Umarī. It was called munāwala. This was not a common practice in the early days.

(5) Kitābah: كتا بسية Correspondence

This means writing $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ to give them to someone else to transmit. In modern terminology this could be called learning by correspondence. There were quite a good deal of activities of this sort. This practice started from very early days, and can be assumed to have started from the very beginning. Official letters of the rightly guided Caliphs contained many $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ which were transmitted by scholars. Besides this many companions and later on many many scholars wrote down $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ and sent them to

^{4.} However, some scholars copied information from certain manuscripts which they found and explained it explicitly that they had found so and so in certain manuscript. This had no validity in the view of early scholars, because a copy might be forged one or the scribe might have committed mistakes in its reading.

^{5.} See for detail, Azami, Studies, p. 88-93.

their students. See for example Ibn 'Abbās's writings to Ibn Abū Mulaikah and Najdah⁶.

(6) I'lam: اعسلام To Inform About Ahadith

I'lām meant to inform someone that informer has permission to transmit a certain book on certain scholars' authority. Some of the scholars permitted this method of transmitting $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ while others rejected it. The only benefit from it was that the second person had to find the original copy which bore the certificate and the name of the person who gave permission. Signs of this method are difficult to trace in the early period.

(7) Wasiyah "es-----

To entrust someone the book which may be transmitted on the authority of the one who entrusted the books. For example Abū Qilābah (d. 104) who entrusted his books to Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī⁷.

That is to find someone's book without any sort of permission to transmit on anyone's authority. This was not a recognized way of learning aḥādīth. According to the standard of the Muḥaddithīn one must state explicitly that the information he presented had been taken from the book of such a man. There are references to books of this sort from very early days. An example is the book of Sa'd b. 'Ubādah (d. 15 A.H.).8

Terms Used to Describe Transmission of Ahadith:

There are many terms employed by *muḥaddithin* for this purpose. As every *isnād* contains many names therefore these terms are repeated frequently.

To save space and time Muhaddithin used abbreviations or, say, shorthand method for this purpose, and even used to drop some word from isnad. These are the terms:

Haddathanā; عدشنا mostly written مدشنا Thanā or Nā نسا only .

Akhbaranā: أحنا mostly written أخبرنا Ana only and rarely أمنا harana

Haddathanā is used mostly to denote learning through the reading 'yy the teacher (1st method)

^{6.} For details see, Azami, Studies P. 41-2.

^{7.} For details see, Azami, Studies, 63.

^{8.} For detail see, Azami, Studies, 63.

Akhbaranā: is used to denote learning through the second method, though some of the scholars used these two terms interchangeably. Anb'anā اَنْبَاتُا is used in Ijāzah and munāwala, and sometimes even Haddathanā Ijāzatan, is used in Munāwala.

Sami'ah: ait is used in the learning through the first method only. An: ait can be used in all the methods.

All these terms are not of equal value. Sami'tu, Ḥaddathanā; Ḥaddathanī, Akhbaranā and Akhbaranī are the most superior, though the authorities differ about which is best among them. However, 'an is very inferior.

These terms should not be changed in copying. An is not explicit for direct contact between narrators, therefore in case of a narrator who was accused of practising Tadlis, it might cause the hadith to be judged a weak one.

Certificate of Reading

A regular record of attendance was kept and after the reading of a book was completed, a note was written either by the teacher or one of the famous scholars in attendance. This gave details of the attendance, e.g. who listened to the complete book and who joined partially, what part they read and what part was missed by them, giving dates and the places. If an attendant was under five years his age was mentioned with the title which meant "attended." If he was five or more he was mentioned as a regular student. At its conclusion the book was usually signed by the teacher or by some famous attending scholar. In many cases, this certificate stipulated that no further entry could be made in the book which had been completed. This certificate was called Tabāq by the Muḥaddithīn.

Education in *ḥadīth* was free. Only a few scholars charged some money but they were denounced for this practice. The students' relations with their teachers were based on reverence and respect. Some of them used to help or serve their tutors, but there were tutors who did not accept any kind of service lest it might be taken as service in return for teaching.

In many cases, the teachers even helped their students financially, and it was quite common to offer meals to them. A noteworthy phenomenon of the education in $had\bar{\imath}th$ was the continuous traveling of students and scholars to collect $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$. Perhaps journeying was an essential part of studentship. Al-Khatīb al-Baghdādī wrote a book on the subject¹¹.

^{9.} See for example Ibn Wahb, Jāmi', p. 40, 77.

^{10.} For explanation of Tadlis, see below, p. 65

^{11.} See Khatīb, ar-Rihla

The Ages of Students

First they learned the Qur'ān, mostly by heart. Many scholars used to examine new students in the Qur'ān. They also learned some other subjects such as Islamic Law, religious practices and grammar. Usually, they joined Muḥaddithīn's circle around the age of twenty. In the era of the Successors students were about twenty years of age when they started learning ahādīth¹².

Zuhrī spoke of Ibn 'Uyayanah who was fifteen years old as the youngest student he had ever seen. Mūsā b. Ishāq says the Kufans sent their sons to learn ahādīth when they were twenty. Al-Thaurī and Abū al-Ahwas, give 20 years as the age at which study of hadith began. The Syrians began to write at 30. The Basrites began to learn when they were only 10; Ibn Hanbal started when he was 16. It ought to be remembered that this was a common practice in literary circles, with many exceptions, and not a compulsory rule which must be followed by everybody. However in later periods it was not observed. Al-Dabarī transmitted 'Abd al-Razzāq's book, and when Abd al-Razzāq died his student was not more than 7 years old13. It was said that if a child could discriminate between a cow and a donkey then he could start learning $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th^{14}$. It was at the time when the texts had been fixed, and learning meant transmission of a book through channels of Isnād. On the other hand, especially in the second century, many scholars were considered weak in their ahādīth from certain teachers on the grounds of their youth when they wrote down from them. For example, 'Amr al-Bairuti is considered weak in the aḥādīth of Auzā'ī as he was young when he wrote down from Auzā'ī. Similar charges were made against Ibn al-Madīnī, Ibn Abū Shaibah, Hishām b. Hassān etc.

However, later the situation changed completely. People began to bring even their infants to the lectures on $had\bar{\imath}th$. The attendance of a child at such lectures entitled him to a certificate which gave the name of the child, if he was under five, as proof that he attended the lectures. But if a child was five or more it was mentioned in the certificate $(Tib\bar{\imath}aq)$ that he learned certain books from certain scholars.

This practice, according to which a child of five years was awarded a certificate of matriculation or graduation in *ḥadīth* sounds like a joke. But as a matter of fact the case is not so ridiculous as it seems and the practice was not as silly as it appears to be.

^{12.} See Rāmhurmuzī, Al-Muhaddith, 186.

^{13.} Khatib, Kifāyah, 64.

^{14.} Ibid., 65.

Let us see what was the task of this 'graduate' of 5 years in hadith when he grew up. All he had to do was to read the text. Usually he was not supposed to interpret or explain it so his learning would not have much effect on its explanation.

The main use of this certificate was to mark the purity and authenticity of the text itself. The graduate's name was put in the certificate of reading which was not written on a sheet of paper but either on the margin of the book, or at the title or at the end of the book¹⁵. After being grown up, he was not entitled to read any copy of the same book. No, he must read either from the same manuscript or from a copy transcribed from the book which bore his name and which was checked carefully.

Therefore, by this very means, the scholars were able to safeguard the purity of the text while keeping the $isn\bar{a}d$ ' $Al\bar{i}$, that is the least number of scholars between the reader and the Prophet.

The Number of Students

There are references to hundreds of teachers from whom al-Thauri, Ibn al-Mubārak, al-Zuhrī, etc. had written down $ah\bar{a}d\bar{u}th$. In the works of biographers we find a long list of teachers and students of eminent scholars. For example, even if we take only one scholar, al-Zuhrī, we do not know precisely how many students wrote down from him, and how many attended his lectures. However, we have at least fifty references to his students who made their written collections from him. The growing number of transmitters resulted in tremendous growth in the number of books. The books grew so voluminous that it was difficult to handle them. Therefore, to avoid chaos and discrepancies, Shu'bah advised writing the famous $ah\bar{a}d\bar{t}th$ from the famous scholars.

This growth of books resulted in the growth of numbers of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}th$. A contributing factor was the method of $Muhaddith\bar{\iota}n$ who counted every $isn\bar{a}d$ as one $had\bar{\iota}th$. Thus if a single statement of the Prophet is narrated by one hundred $isn\bar{a}ds$ it would be counted as one hundred $had\bar{\iota}th$. Thus a few thousand $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}th$ of the Prophet reached to over 600,000 $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}th$. This fact and method which is unknown to many modern scholars caused them to make many mistakes.¹⁷

^{15.} See Appendix No. 1.

For detailed study of Zuhris students and their writings of ahāīth from him, see Studies, pp. 88-93.

^{17.} For detailed study of the subject see, Studies p. 302-5.

CHAPTER IV

RECORDING OF AHĀDĪTH

In the previous chapter, I have discussed the methods used by early scholars in teaching and learning the ahādīth of the Prophet.

In seven methods of learning out of eight, from two to eight depend almost totally on the written material. I have also mentioned that the most common were the first and second methods. In many ways, even the first method, that is reading or dictation by the teachers, involved written material in many cases, while the second method, that is reading by students to their teachers required almost exclusively written materials.

However, it is generally believed that the aḥādīth were transmitted orally for one hundred years at least. Then Zuhrī recorded them by order of Caliph 'Umar b. 'Abdul 'Azīz. And in the view of some 'scholars', even his recording was lost. Both these assumptions are based on lack of knowledge of the early literary history of aḥādīth and their literary style. Therefore the problem of recording of aḥādīth needs special attention. Meanwhile it ought to be remembered that mere recording of material is not complete guarantee of its safe preservation. For example, we know that in the existing Greek Bibles there are some 200,000 variants, some of them minor and some of them very important, which is sufficient to prove that mere recording of a subject is not a sure guarantee of its safe preservation. However, a text can be kept fully preserved even without recording. For example, even if all the books on the earth were destroyed, the holy Qur'ān would still remain safe because millions of Muslims have memorized it completely or in parts.

Recording of *Ḥadīth* in the Life of the Prophet and the Companions

We know that certain companions wrote down $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ in the life of the Prophet and in some cases the Prophet dictated it to them. No doubt their numbers must have been smaller than those of the later scholars who wrote down $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$. I will try to give a summary of the work of some Companions who took part in diffusion of $had\bar{i}th$ and devoted great deal of time to it.

^{1.} P. Auvray. A. Barueq etc. Introduction A La Bible, P. 111.

It is a well known fact that not all the Companions had equal number of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ for transmission. The proportion of the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ varied. While some of them transmitted more than a thousand most of them transmitted a $had\bar{i}th$ or two only. The names of Companions who transmitted $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ in large numbers is as follows: The first name is that of $Ab\bar{u}$ Hurairah, who transmitted, according to $Baq\bar{i}$ b. Makhalad, 5374 $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$. Actually, this is not the number of $had\bar{i}th$, but the number of channels through which $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ were transmitted. The most recent research shows that the number of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ transmitted by him is 1236 only.². He is reported to have had books of $had\bar{i}th$ in his possession. At least nine of $Ab\bar{u}$ Hurairah's students wrote $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ from him.

Next to Abū Hurairah comes the name of Ibn 'Umar, who according to Baqī, transmitted 2630 hadīth³. We have authentic reports that he had a written collection of hadīth. At least eight of his students wrote ahādīth from him. Others who transmitted large numbers of hadīth were:

Anas ibn Malik, who served the Prophet for ten years and transmitted 2286 hadīth. At least sixteen persons have hadīth from him in written form, though some of them are not fully reliable.

Ummul-Mu'minin 'Aisha who transmitted 2210 hadīth. At least three persons had her ahādīth in written form including her nephew, 'Urwah, one of the greatest scholars amongst the successors.

Ibn 'Abbas, who transmitted 1660 hadīth. At least nine of his students had ahādīth from him in written form.

Jäbir b 'Abdullah who transmitted 1540 $had\bar{\imath}th$. At least fourteen of his students had his $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ in written form.

Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī who transmitted 1170 $had\bar{\imath}th$. He seems to have been opposed to the writing down of $ah\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}th$, though according to Khatīb he himself wrote a few $ah\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}th$.

Ibn Mas'ud who transmitted 748 hadīth. We have no information about his students who wrote down hadīth from him, but his own book was in the possession of his son.

'Abdullah b. 'Amr b. Al-' \bar{A} s, who transmitted 700 $had\bar{\imath}th$. We know that he used to write $had\bar{\imath}th$ while the Prophet was alive and titled his books by

Diyā ur-Rahmān al-A'zamī, Abū Hurairah fī dau Mariyātihi, p. 7, (M.A. Thesis, Shari'ah College, Mecca).

^{3.} The number of aḥādīth mentioned with the names of other Companions do not refer to the actual number of aḥādīth. The actual number would be much smaller, as we have seen in the case of Abū Hurairah, but there is no extant study of the subject.

the name of 'al-Ṣahīfah al-Ṣādiqah'. At least seven of his students have hadīth from him in written form.

The second Caliph, 'Umar, 537 $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ have been transmitted by him. He used to quote $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ in official letters and in this way many $had\bar{\imath}th$ were recorded by him.

The fourth Caliph, 'Alī ibn Abū Ṭālib. He transmitted 536 aḥādīth. At least eight of his students had his hadīth in written form.

Abū Mūsā al-Ash'ari, transmitted 360 hadīth. Some of his hadīth were in the possession of Ibn 'Abbās in written form.

Al-Barā' ibn 'Azib, transmitted 305 hadīth. He used to dictate hadīth.

I am going to stop at this point, because the instances I have given are sufficient to throw light on the problem under discussion. In the light of above mentioned facts, it is quite safe to assume that probably most of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{t}th$ of the Prophet, if not all, came to be written during the life of the Companions⁴.

Some Misunderstanding About the Recording of Hadīth.

If what I have written concerning the early recording of aḥādīth of the Prophet is correct then how does one explain the general belief that the aḥādīth were recorded very late?

I think this mistake is due to the following reasons:

- (1) Misinterpretation of the words Tadwin, Taṣnīf and Kitābah which were understood in the sense of record.
- (2) Misunderstanding of the terms *Haddathanā*, *Akhbaranā*, *'An* etc. which were generally believed to be used for oral transmission.
- (3) The claim that the memory of the Arabs was unique and they had no need to write down anything.
- (4) Hadīth of the Prophet against recording aḥādīth.
- (5) Misinterpretation of early scholars' statements concerning recording of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$.

Points four and five need some discussion.

The Hadīth Against Writing Down the Ahādīth.

In 'Taqyīd al-'Ilm', al-Khatīb al Baghdādī deals at full length with the subject of the recording of aḥādīth and discusses whether or not it was

^{4.} For a detailed study of the problem, see Al Azami, Studies p. 34-182.

allowed by the Prophet. The first part of the book is mainly concerned with the disapproval of writing; and the first chapter of this part mainly contains $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}th$ from the Prophet, transmitted by Abū Saʻīd al-Khudrī, Abu Huraira and Zaid b.Thābit, forbidding writing of anything except the Qur'ān.

In this first part there are the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ of Abū Saʻīd al Khudrī which had two different versions, one of them transmitted by 'Abd al-Raḥmān-Ď.Zaid. The authorities agree unanimously that he was a weak narrator and according to al-Hākim and Abū Nuʻaim he transmitted even false $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$; and in the words of Ibn Ḥibbān, "He used to reverse $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$, without knowing it, and put the full $isn\bar{a}d$ for an interrupted (chain), so he deserved to be abandoned". Therefore, the $had\bar{i}th$ of Abū Saʻīd al-Khudrī transmitted by 'Abd al-Rahmān b.Zaid is weak and unacceptable.

The same 'Abd al-Rahmān b.Zaid occurs in the $had\bar{\imath}th$ of Abū Hurariah. Therefore, this $had\bar{\imath}th$ is also weak and unacceptable.

The third companion is Zaid by Thābit. His $had\bar{\imath}th$ is Mursal.5 The transmitter from Zaid is al-Muttalib b.'Abd Allah who did not learn from Zaid, therefore there is a link missing whose honesty is unknown. So this $had\bar{\imath}th$ is also unacceptable. Furthermore, $had\bar{\imath}th$ from Zaid has two versions. In one of them, his disapproval of the writing of had $\bar{\imath}th$ is based on the order of the Prophet, while in another statement it is said that he disapproved of it because the written materials were his personal opinions. Therefore, this statement does not confirm his disapproval of the recording of the $ah\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}th$ of the Prophet.

There is only one sahīh hadīth (Trustworthy) transmitted by Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī, in this matter which reads, "Do not write from me anything except the Qur'ān and whoever has written anything from me other than the Qur'ān should erase it." This hadīth, which is transmitted by Abū Sa'īd al-Khudrī on the authority of the Prophet is disputed among scholars. According to al-Bukharī and others, it is the statement of Abū Sa'īd himself, that is erroneously attributed to the Prophet, and it actually meant that nothing should be written with the Qur'ān on the same sheet as this might lead someone to conclude erroneously that sentences or words written in the margin or between lines belonged to the Qur'ān. It should be remembered that this command was given when the Qur'ān was being revealed and the text itself was incomplete. Otherwise there does not appear to be any sound reason to forbid the writing of ahādīth.

^{5.} For the explanation of the term, see, below, p. 64

^{6.} Mu.Zuhd, 72.

The Prophet himself sent hundreds of letters. Many of them were lengthy, containing the formulae for forms and rituals of worship. According to the Qur'ān his conduct and deeds should be followed by the community. The Qur'ān itself demands a record of financial transactions. Therefore, it looks as if there were no general instructions not to record the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$, though it might have been understood by some of the Scholars in this way. On the other hand there is clear evidence to show that the Prophet approved of recording the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$. Furthermore, we find that quite a number of Companions recorded $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$ and among them were also those people who transmitted $had\bar{a}th$ which forbade its recording. Bearing all this in mind one arrives at the conclusion that the prophet's disapproval of writing down $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$ most probably meant the writing of the Qur'ān and non-Qur'ānic material on the same sheet because that might have led to misunderstanding.

There is another theory that it was forbidden to write down $ah\bar{a}d\bar{t}th$ in early days because all attention should be paid to the Qur'ān and its preservation, and later on, when there was no danger of neglecting the Qur'ān, the previous order was abrogated and people were permitted to write down $ah\bar{a}d\bar{t}th$.

Misinterpretation of Early Scholars' Statements.

There have been many scholars who wrote down $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$, and sometimes disliked doing so, giving reasons for their attitudes which were not based on the Prophet's teachings. In many cases, the reasons were omitted, or even when the statements were given in full they were interpreted as against writing without any serious consideration.

Some Examples

- 1. It is reported that Ibrāhīm al-Nakha'ī was against writing. The reason he gave for disapproval was that "whoever writes becomes dependent on it." According to the conception of some early scholars, books were bad stores of knowledge, and the best store was one which is kept in memory which could be used anywhere and at any time. One of the Bedouin said: a word in your memory is better than ten in your book.
- 2. The name of 'Amir al-Sha'bī has been given in the lists of those against writing. If one reads his statement carefully one must reach the conclusion that al-Sha'bī was not against writing. We have two of

^{7.} For detailed discussion, see Al-Azami, Studies in Early Hadith literature p. 18-27.

his statements on the subject. In one of them he says, "I neither wrote with black on white nor did I ask any man to repeat a hadīth twice to me". The purpose of this statement is to show his great power of memory so that he never needed to ask anyone to repeat a hadīth and to hear it only once was sufficient for him to memorize it. The statement has no connection with the subject of the recording of hadīth. In another statement he advises his students to write down everything they hear from him; if they did not have paper they were even asked to write on walls.

No doubt there were some scholars who disliked the writing down of *Ḥadīth* at one time or another for reasons which were not based on any religious authority.

The most famous scholar during the late first and early second century was Zuhrī, who had written down almost everything which he had heard from his teachers. But when he began to teach he did not agree to dictate the ahādīth, till pressure was exerted on him through the Caliph Hishām.8 Why was it so? To understand the reason thoroughly we need to see it in his own statement as well as of Mālik b.Anas who was the student of Zuhrī. One of the students of Mālik read al-Muwattā' to him in forty days, upon which Mālik said: The knowledge which I have collected in forty years you are gaining in forty days. How little can you understand it!9 Perhaps he wanted to say: How little can you appreciate it. Once al-Sha'bī transmitted a hadith, then said to the student that you are really getting it for nothing, otherwise even for less one had to make a journey from Iraq to al-Madīnā.¹⁰ Actually it was the general attitude of that time that the teachers could hardly be brought to speak. The students had to accompany them and when their teachers spoke, they wrote it down or memorized it. Zuhrī says: "People used to sit with Ibn'Umar but none dared call upon him till someone (from outside) came and asked him. We sat with Ibn al-Musayyab without questioning him, till someone came and questioned him, the question roused him to impart hadith to us, or he began to impart of his own will". 11 Therefore, although al-Zuhrī wrote down hadīth for his own use, he was not in favour of making them public. One who wants to learn must strive, and the student should not be given any ready-made knowledge in the shape of a book or dictation.

^{8.} Abū Nu'aim, al-Hilya, iii, 363.

^{9.} al-Zurgānī, Shārh al-Muwaţtā, i.7.

^{10.} al-Khatīb, al-Riḥlah, 61-62.

^{11.} For detail see, Azami, Studies, 284.

Summing up the argument regarding the reasons for disliking recording, there is no evidence that the interdiction of writing was based on the order of the Prophet. It was based at one time or another on personal prejudice. Nevertheless the same scholars committed aḥādīth to writing. The recent research has proved that almost all the ḥadīth of the Prophet was written down in the life of Companions, which stretched to the end of the first century.

If the recording is carried out for the preservation of recorded material, then no doubt $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ were preserved in this way. However, due to unique theory of learning which I have described in the chapter on Tahammul al-Ilm, direct approach to these books by everyone was regarded improper. It had to be through scholars authorized by proper teachers. These scholars themselves became part of the information and cannot be separated from it. In other words, sources of information became essential part of information, without which the information had no value. These sources of information are called $isn\bar{a}d$, the chain of the transmitters. In the next chapter we shall discuss the problem of $isn\bar{a}d$.

CHAPTER V

ISNĀD SYSTEM (CHAIN OF TRANSMITTERS)

Every hadîth consists of two parts. Here is a hadîth quoted from Bukharî.

Bukhārī said that Sulaimān Abū ar-Rabī' informed him saying that Ismā'īl b. Ja'far said that Nāfi' b. Mālik informed him on the authority of his father that Abū Huraira related that the Prophet said: the signs of a Hypocrite are three;

Whenever he speaks he tells a lie.

Whenever he makes a promise, he breaks it.

Whenever trusted with something he proves to be dishonest.

This *ḥadīth* contains a series of names of narrators, and then the actual subject relating to the Prophet.

The first portion is called $isn\bar{a}d$ while the actual statement or information relating to the Prophet is called matn. $Isn\bar{a}d$, according to Arabic lexicography means the thing on which another relies. As we rely on the narrators for the knowledge of the statement of the Prophet, this chain is called $isn\bar{a}d$. Its plural is $as\bar{a}n\bar{i}d$. Sometimes the term $tar\bar{i}q$ is used instead of $isn\bar{a}d$, and sometimes the term wajh is used for the same purpose.

Origins of Isnād

It appears that isnād was used casually in some literature in Pre-Islamic period in a vague manner, without attaching any importance to it. The isnād system was also used to some extent in transmitting pre-Islamic poetry. But it was in the hadīth literature that its importance culminated till it was counted as part of the religion. The system was used to the full, and in some cases to extravagant limits, for documenting the hadīth literature,—the store room for the sunna. The sunna of the Prophet being a basic legal source, it was natural to deal with these documents with utmost care. Thus with the introduction of isnād, a unique science 'Ilm

^{1.} Nāsir al-Asad, Masādir al-Shi'r al-Jāhilī, 255-267.

^{2.} MU. Introduction, pp. 14-16.

al-Jarh wa al-Ta'dil came into existence for the evaluation of $isn\bar{a}d$ and $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$.

I have described earlier that it was the common practice among Companions—even in the life of the Prophet—to transmit the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ of the Prophet, when they saw each other. Some of them had even made special arrangements to attend the Prophet's circle in shifts and to inform each other of what they had heard and seen in the presence of the Prophet.

Naturally in informing their fellows they would have used sentences like: 'the Prophet did such and such' or 'the Prophet said so and so'. It is also natural that one of them who had gained knowledge at second hand, while reporting the incident to a third man, might have disclosed his sources of information and might have given the full account of the incident. There are ample references of this kind in the Ḥadīth literature. Only one will be quoted here.

Dimām b. Tha'labah came to the Prophet and said to him: "Muhammed, your messenger came to us and told us . . .".3 These methods, which were used in the early days for the diffusion of the sunna of the Prophet, gave birth to 'isnād', and this was the rudimentary beginning of the system. In this regard Ibn Sīrīn's statement would be very helpful. He says, "They did not ask about the isnād, but when civil war—Fitnah—arose they said 'Name to us your men; those who belong to Ahl-al-Sunnah, their aḥādīth were accepted and those who were innovators their aḥādīth were neglected."4

This gives the impression that the *isnād* was used even before the *Fitnah*, but the narrators were not so perfect in applying it. Sometimes they employed it and at others neglected it. After the civil war they became more cautious and began to enquire about the sources of information and scrutinized them. At the end of the first century the science of the *isnād* was fully developed. Shu'bah used to watch the lips of Qatādah, in the lecture, to discriminate between his first and second hand information. There are ample references to asking and enquiring about the *isnād* in the first century of the Hijrah.

The Proliferation of Isnāds

It is a common phenomenon of *isnād* system that as we go further in time the number of transmitters increases. Sometimes a *ḥadīth* transmitted by one companion acquires ten students in the next generation, in the class

^{3.} MU, Imān, 10.

^{4.} MU, Introduction, 15.

of Successors, and in turn these ten students have in some cases twenty or thirty students belonging to different countries and provinces.

I give here a few examples to show how the isnād proliferated.

Example 1:

Abu Hurairah reported that Rasulullah said when anyone amongst you wakes up from sleep, he must not put his hand in a utensil till he has washed it three times, for he does not know where his hand was during sleep.

At least thirteen students of Abū Hurairah transmitted this hadīth from him.

8 out of 13 were from Madinah.

1 was from Kufah.

2 from Başrah.

1 from Yemen.

1 from Syria.

There are sixteen scholars who transmitted this hadith from the students of Abū Hurairah.

6 out of 16 were from Madinah.

4 from Başrah.

2 from Kūfah, Iraq.

1 from Makkah.

1 from Yemen.

l from Khurāsān.

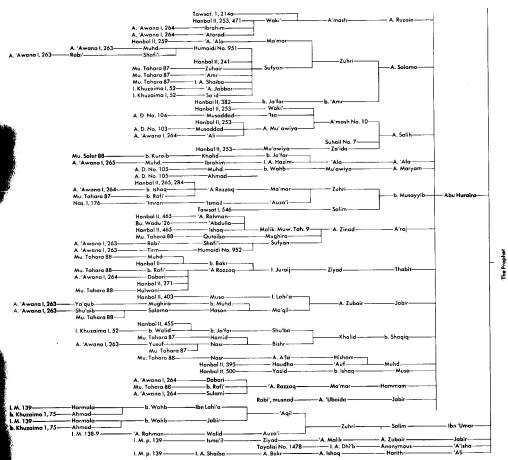
1 from Hims (Syria).

Example 2:

حدثنا عبد العزيز بن المختار قال حدثنا سهيل بن ابي صالح عن أبيه عن أبسي المحتار قال حدثنا سهيل بن ابي صالح عن أبيه عن أبسي هريرة أن النبى صلى الله عليه وسلم قال: انما الامام ليؤتم به اذا كبر فكبروا ، واذا سجد ركع فاركعوا واذا قال سمع الله لمن حمده فقولوا: اللهم ربنا لك الحمد ، واذا سجد فاسجد وا ولا تسجد وا حتى يرفع ، واذا رفع فارفعوا ولا ترفعوا حتى يرفع ، واذا صلى قاعدا فصلوا تعودا أجمعون .

Abū Huraira reported the Prophet saying: The Imām ought to be followed. So recite takbīr when he recites and bow down when he bows

Here is the chart of this Hadith upto the time of the classical authors.



down. And when he says: سمع الله لمن حمده "Allah listens to him who praises Him", say اللهم ربنا لك الحمد

"O Allah, our Lord, to thee be praise". And when he prostrates, you should prostrate. You must not prostrate till he prostrates. When he raises (his head) you should raise yours. You must not raise your head till he raises. If he prays sitting, all of you should pray sitting.

This hadīth is reported by twenty six third generation authorities, all of whom trace the origins of their knowledge to Companions of the Prophet. It is found almost in the same form or in the same meaning in all versions in ten different locations at this time (Madīna, Makka, Egypt, Baṣrah, Hims,

Yemen, Kūfa, Syria, Wāsiṭ and Ṭā'if). Three of the twenty six authorities heard it from more than one source.

Existing documentation shows that this hadith was transmitted by at least ten Companions. We have details of the courses of transmission for seven of these ten, showing that they came originally from three different places—Madina, Syria and Iraq.

The course of transmission from only one of the Companions—Abū Hurairah—shows clearly how the number of transmitters increased from generation to generation and how the *hadīth* became known in widely different locations. Abū Hurairah had at least seven students who transmitted this *hadīth* from him. Four of these belonged to Madīna, two to Egypt and one to Yemen. These students in turn transmitted to at least twelve others—five from Madīna, two from Makka and one each from Syria, Kufa, Tā'if, Egypt and Yemen.

Similar patterns of transmission from the other Companions show how the hadīth spread wider—to Baṣrah, Himṣ and Wāsiţ—and reinforced the hadīth in Madīna, Makka, Kufa, Egypt and Syria.

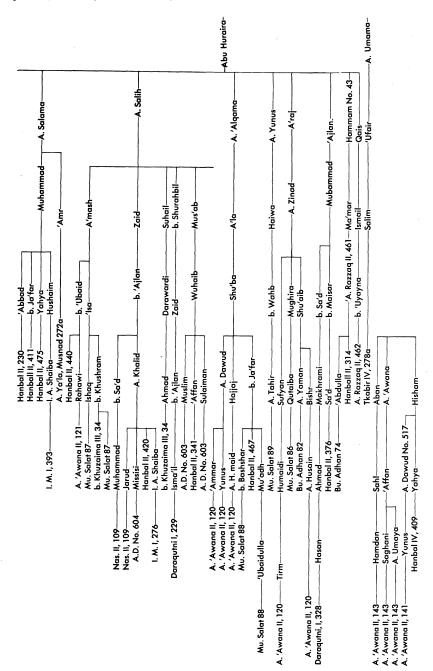
Example 3:

Abū Huraira reported the Prophet saying that Almighty Allah said: "Every act of the son of Adam is for him, a good deed would be rewarded tenfold, except fasting which is (exclusively) meant for Me, and I (alone) will reward it. One abandons his food for My sake and abandons drinking for My sake, and abandons his pleasure for My sake. When any one of you is fasting he should neither indulge in sex nor use obscene language. If anyone reviles him he should say, I am fasting. The one who fasts has two (occasions) of joy: one when he breaks the fast and one the day when he would meet his Lord.

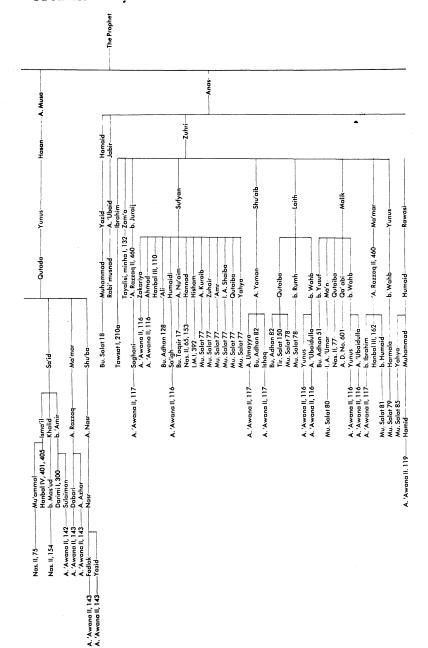
And the breath (of one who fasts) is sweeter to Allah than the fragrance of musk."

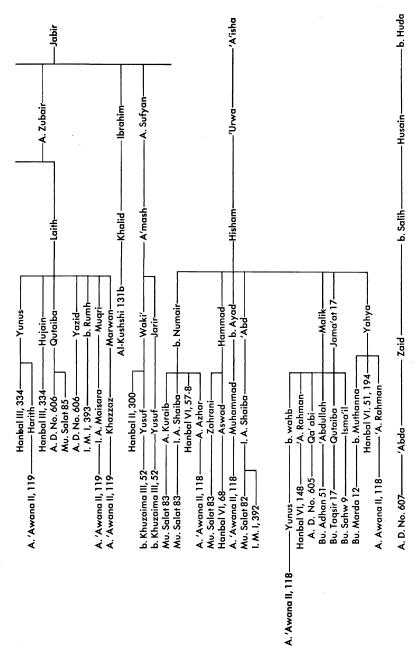
This lengthy hadīth has been transmitted by many scholars in parts. Ibn Hanbal has endorsed it at least twenty-four times. It is included in the collections of A'mash (d. 148), Ibn Juraij (d. 150) and Ibrāhīm b. Tahmān (d. 168)—transmitters from the students of Abū Hurairah. It is also found in Shi'ite, Zaidī and Ibādī sources.

If we confine the discussion only to the third generation of narrators from Abū Hurairah, belonging mostly to the first half of the second century of the *Hijrah*, the following features appear: There are twenty-two third generation transmitters—nine from Madīna, five from Baṣrah, four from



STUDIES IN HADITH METHODOLOGY AND LITERATURE





Kūfa, and one each from Makka, Wāsiṭ, Hijāz and Khurāsān. These variously trace their source to eleven students of Abū Hurairah, whose homes were in Madīna, Baṣra and Kūfa.

Without going into details, however, I draw a diagram for this hadith to show how easy it was for hadith knowledge to spread throughout the Islamic world and how the number of transmitters, in most cases, increased in each generation.

Further down the chain, the number of narrators increases and localities spread even further into different provinces. The flourishing of $isn\bar{a}d$ and diffusion of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$ in this way made it easy to check the faults of scholars, or any forgery that was committed. This proves the early existence of the $isn\bar{a}d$ system and shows how impossible it would have been to fabricate $isn\bar{a}ds$ on this large scale.

A second interesting point is that not all the Madinese, Basrites or Kufans are the students of one man. Three of the Basrites trace the source of their knowledge to one Basrite, but the other two cite two different Madinese as their source. The Chart of the *Isnad* of this *Hadith* is on Page 41

The illustrations serve to show how well documented are the $isn\bar{a}ds$ of the majority of $ah\bar{a}dith$, how the system is used in examining the statements of scholars, and how it was and can be used for eliminating mistakes.

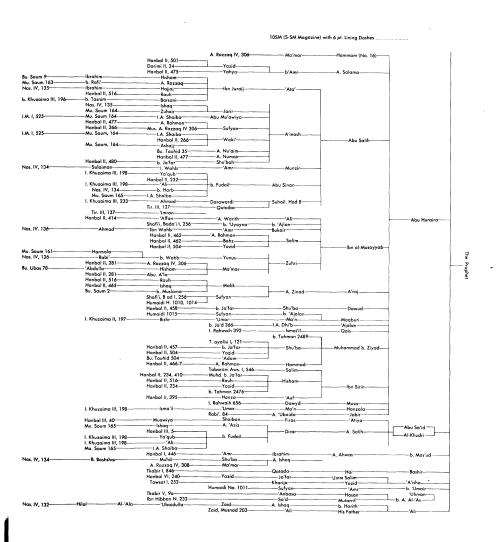
No doubt not all the aḥādīth were spread so widely. There are aḥādīth which were transmitted—according to our available sources—through a single scholar from a single scholar for three or four generations.

saying that whenever you pray Jum'a, pray four rak'a after it. Chart P42.

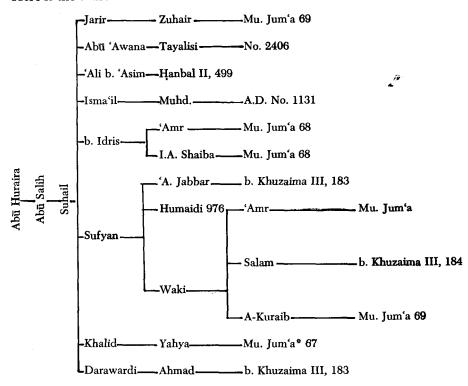
Now we have almost a complete picture of the spreading of $isn\bar{a}d$. These charts cited above provide support for complete confidence in the system of $isn\bar{a}d$ and its beginning from the time of the Prophet. It was impossible to fabricate on this great a scale in an era lacking the modern facilities of communication.

I described in the previous chapter the efforts made by early scholars to distinguish between valid and invalid $ah\bar{a}dith$, and the rigorous methods they used to examine chains of transmission, eliminating all $ah\bar{a}dith$ passed on by unreliable sources. Given centuries of this kind of activity, we are logically justified in accepting the whole system of $isn\bar{a}d$ and methodology of $had\bar{i}th$ scholars as accurate and valid.

Here is the chart of the isnād of this hadīth



Here is the chart.



Isnād and Its Impact on Classification of Aḥādīth

A common feature of a good many aḥādīth in the early part of the second century A.H., as is evident from the charts, is the great number of transmitters who belong to different provinces and countries. However, not all the aḥādīth had the one pattern in the spread of isnād. We have seen that some of the aḥādīth were transmitted by many Companions and many many successors while some others were related by a single Companion only from whom it was narrated by a single Successor, who in turn had a single student who transmitted this particular ḥadīth.

Therefore aḥādīth were graded according to the numbers of narrators. In this regard the following terms need attention: a. Mutawātir, b. 'Ahād.

^{5.} For examples, see page diagrams No. 1-3.

^{6.} For example, see page diagram No. 4.

Mutawātir: report of a large number of narrators whose agreement upon a lie is inconceivable. This condition must be met in the entire chain from the origins of the report to the very end.

In the view of Muslim scholars any hadith which has been transmitted by tawātur and whose reporters based their reports on direct, unambiguous, perception unmixed with rationalization would produce knowledge with certainty.

However, there is a difference of opinion about the required number of narrators for *mutawātir ḥadīth*, ranging from four to several hundreds.

In my opinion if a hadīth was transmitted by a few Companions, say four for example, and everyone of them had a number of students scattered throughout the Muslim world and in course of transmission their number increased and their locality varied more and more, even this small number would produce the knowledge with certainty, especially for those people who knew the character of early scholars.

- a.) Mutawātir has been divided in two groups:
 - 1. Mutawātir by words,
 - 2. Mutawātir in the meaning.

Only a few aḥādīth have been mentioned as Mutawāir by words, meaning all the narrators used the same expression. However, mutawātir in the sense and meanings are numerous.

b.) $'\bar{A}h\bar{a}d$, whose narrators do not reach anywhere near the number for $mutaw\bar{a}tir$. It has been divided into many sub-divisions. Some of them are as below.⁷

Al-Mashh $\bar{u}r$: (well-known) That is a had $\bar{t}th$ transmitted by three or more transmitters in every stage.

Al-'Azīz: That is a hadīth transmitted at least by two narrators in every generation.

Al-Gharīb: If an $isn\bar{a}d$ had a single narrator either throughout its $isn\bar{a}d$ —after the Companion—or in any stage, it is called $Ghar\bar{\imath}b$.

Al-Fard which has been divided into two sub-divisions:

- a) Fard mutlaq, which means that this particular hadīth was transmitted by that particular person alone.
- b) Fard Nisbī, which has several meanings:
 - i) None of the trustworthy transmitters narrated that particular *hadith* except that particular person (narrator); or others narrated it as well but they were not trustworthy.

^{7.} Sometimes more than one definition has been given by the scholars. However, I have mentioned only one that is accepted by the majority of the scholars.

ii) None of the people of other regions transmitted that particular hadith except the scholars of that particular region.

 $Marf\bar{u}'$: That is $isn\bar{a}d$ of the $had\bar{i}th$ goes back to the Prophet, though it might be broken somewhere.

Musnad: That is isnād of the hadīth is uninterrupted and goes back to the Prophet.

Muttasil: That is isnād of the hadīth is unbroken.

Mauquf: The isnād of hadīth goes back to the Companion only.

 $Maqt\bar{u}'$: A $had\bar{\imath}th$ going back to the Successor only.

Mursal: Transmission of a Successor from the Prophet directly dropping the Companion from the Isnād.

Mu'allaq: An isnād in which one or more authorities from the beginning (from the author or book) is omitted.

Munqați': An isnād having a single link missing somewhere in the middle, in one place or more.

Mu'dal: An isnād in which two continuous links are missing in one or more than one places.

Mu'an'an: In the isnād, in transmitting the material the term 'an has been used, which is not explicit in describing the method of receiving the hadīth.

Musalsal: Is a hadīth all of whose narrators had a similar situation. For example all of them used same terminology in narration such as Sami'tu. Or all of them belong to one region or one occupation. Or they narrated the hadīth with the same action, e.g. all the narrators smiled while narrating a hadīth because the Prophet had smiled while saying it.

Al-Hadīth al-Qudsī

Some of the aḥādīth are narrated by the Prophet, saying that Almighty Allah says so and so. These ahādīth are called Ḥadīth Qudsī. The meaning of these ahādīth was revealed to the Prophet who put them in his own expression. The Holy Qur'ān is the real word of Almighty Allah and the Prophet had only to receive it and then to teach it to the people, explain it and act accordingly. However, other aḥādīth which are not called Qudsī cannot be said to be totally uninspired by Allah. The Prophet was never left unguided by Allah. Even his ijtihādāt were sanctioned by Allah and in case of any lack of clarity it was corrected by Him. Therefore a good deal of aḥādīth are Qudsī in a sense, but cannot be distinguished from the ones which belong to ijtihādāt of the Prophet. Thus we simply have to name

them $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$, being the possibility of $ijtih\bar{a}d\bar{a}t$ of the Prophet. An example of $Had\bar{i}th$ -Quds \bar{i} :

as saying صلى الله عليه وسلم Abu Dharr reported Allah's Messenger that Allah, the Exalted and Glorious, said: My servants, I have made oppression unlawful for Me and unlawful for you, so do not commit oppression against one another. My servants, all of you are liable to err except one whom I guide on the right path, so seek right guidance from Me so that I should direct you to the right path. O My servants, all of you are hungry (needy) except one whom I feed, so beg food from Me, so that I may give that to you. O My servants, all of you are naked (need clothes) except one whom I provide garments, so beg clothes from Me, so that I should clothe you. O My servants, you commit error night and day and I am there to pardon your sins, so beg pardon from Me so that I should grant you pardon. O My servants, you can neither do Me any harm nor can you do Me any good. O My servants, even if the first amongst you and the last amongst you and even the whole of the human race of yours, and that of Jinns even, become (equal in) God-consciousness like the heart of a single person amongst you, nothing would add to My power. O My servants, even if the first amongst you and the last amongst you and the whole human race of yours and that of Jinns too in unison become the most wicked (all beating) like the heart of a single person, it would cause no loss to My Power. O My servants, even if the first amongst you and the last amongst you and the whole human race of yours and that of Jinns also all stand in one plain ground and ask Me and I confer upon every person what he asks for, it would not, in any way, cause any loss to Me (even less) than that which is caused to the ocean by dipping the needle in it. My servants, these deeds of your which I am recording for you I shall reward you for them, so he who finds good shall praise Allah and he who does not find that should not blame anyone but his ownself.8

These are some of the classifications of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ basing on the various condition of $isn\bar{a}d$. But there is another classification of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$, different from these, which basically concern acceptance or rejection of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$. This classification came into existence due to criticism carried out by $Muhaddith\bar{i}n$. In the next chapters we will discuss the history and methodology of $had\bar{i}th$ criticism, and later on its grading and classification.

^{8.} MU. Birr, 55.

CHAPTER VI

ḤADĪTH CRITICISM HISTORY AND METHODOLOGY

I have pointed out the fact that all the problems concerning $Had\bar{\imath}th$ of the Prophet rest upon the central question of the status of the sunna, or we may say $Had\bar{\imath}th$, of the Prophet which is the second main source of Islamic law, valid forever, and the life of the Prophet is a model which ought to be followed by Muslims irrespective of time and place. For this reason, the Companions, even in the life of the Prophet, began to diffuse the knowledge of the sunna and they were ordered by the Prophet to do so. However, this does not mean that the door was wide open for everybody to transmit the $Had\bar{\imath}th$ even if he was sure that he was not committing a mistake. The Prophet warned the people saying: "If anyone tells a lie about me intentionally, let him be sure of his place in hell fire."

In another *Ḥadīth*, he said: "If anyone intentionally ascribes to me what I have not said, then let him be sure of his place in Hell-Fire." These warnings produced tremendous effect on the Companions of the Prophet. Many Companions refrained from imparting *Ḥadīth* in case of doubtful memory. In this regard one may give examples of Anas b. Mālik³, Zubair b. al-'awwā⁴, Suhaib⁵, Zaid b. arqam⁵, as well as 'Abdullah Ibn 'Umar⁻.

We find certain Companions checking other Companions, asking them to be very sure and precise as to what they related, on the authority of the Prophet.

^{1.} BU. 'Ilm, 38.

^{2.} Ibid.

^{3.} Ibid.

^{4.} Ibid., 3.

^{5.} Al-Baladhuri, Ansāb, 1.138.

^{6.} I.M. Introd. 3.

^{7.} Hanbal, iv, 433.

Forgery and Errors in Transmitting of Aḥādīth

Scholars, especially early scholars, played their roles with due caution in transmitting or copying $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$. But, as is known to all scholars, even the most sincere one may commit a mistake at one time or another.

As the *sunna* of the Prophet is an everlasting example for the Muslim Community, the community, too, cannot afford to let it be polluted or diluted in any way. Therefore, to check mistakes of all sorts, it was necessary to use criticism with full force. The following incidents throw some light on this point.

Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd al-Qaṭṭān, one of the greatest scholars of the second century was on his death bed. He asked one of the attendants, "what do the people of Baṣra say about me?" He replied, "They admire you, but they are only afraid of your criticism of the scholars." On which, he said, "Listen to me, in the Hereafter I would prefer to be opposed by anyone rather than have the Prophet saying: 'You heard a hadīth attributed to me, and it came to your mind that it was not true but you did not criticize it.' "8

With this intention the criticism of *Ḥadīth* was carried out, without fear or favor. One finds that a father graded down his own son, a son criticized his father, a brother criticized his own kin and friends criticized their dear one without any fear or favor except the fear of Allah. I think this is very hard to appreciate in the 20th Century, because respect for father or brother or love of children has become minimal, but anyone who knows the early history and knows how tight the social unit was, and that it was almost impossible to live cut off from the family and family honor, would realize how courageous muhaddithin were in this respect.

The other point which needs clarification is that in real-life experience we find people always grading their friends higher and lowering the grades of their opponents. Could that have happened in the grading done by muhaddithin? It could have because this is human weakness and muhaddithin were human beings. They tried their best to be objective yet there are some traces here and there which indicate that personal enmity played some part in grading lower. The scholars have discussed the subject as well as the case where it was committed. But apart from the exceptions the opposite is true.

Naqd al-Hadith: Criticism of Hadith

In Arabic literature, the word naqad is used for criticism. This word was used by some early scholars of *Ḥadīth* in the Second century.⁹

^{8.} Ibn. Rajah, Sharh 'Ilal 43 a.

^{9.} Rāzī, Introd. 232.

Going through the Qur'an and Ḥadīth we do not find this word used in the sense of criticism. Does this imply that the concept of criticism came very late in Ḥadīth literature? No, as a matter of fact, the Qur'an uses, the word yamīz for this purpose, meaning "separated one thing from another". 11

A third century scholar, Imām Muslim, named his book al- $Tamy\bar{\imath}z$, whose subject is methodology of $Had\bar{\imath}th$ criticism. Some $Had\bar{\imath}th$ scholars used the word naqad, but it did not gain currency in their circle. They named the science which deals with criticism of $Had\bar{\imath}th$, al-Jarh wa al- $Ta'd\bar{\imath}l$ (the knowledge of invalidating and declaring reliable in $Had\bar{\imath}th$).

Beginning of Criticism

If criticism is the effort to distinguish between what is right and what is wrong, then we can say that it began in the life of the Prophet. But at this stage, it meant no more than going to the Prophet and verifying something he was reported to have said. Actually, at this stage, it was a process of consolidation so that the hearts of the Muslims might be at ease, as has been described by the Qur'ān in the case of Ibrahim. Dimām b. Tha'labah came to the Prophet

Tha'labah came to the Prophet

and said, "Muhammad, your messenger came to us and told us . . . so and so)" The Prophet said, "He told the truth."

13

We find this sort of investigation or verifying was carried out by 'Ali¹⁴, Ubai b. Kaʻb¹⁵, 'Abdullah b. 'Amr¹⁶, 'Umar¹⁷, Zainab wife of Ibn Masʻūd¹⁶, and others. In the light of these events, it can be claimed that the investigation of Ḥadīth or, in other words, criticism of Ḥadīth began in a rudimentary form during the life of the Prophet. This practice of referring to the Prophet ceased naturally with the death of the Messenger of Allah مناها المناها المن

^{10.} Lane, Lexicon, 2836.

^{11.} See, the Qur'an, Al-'Imran, 179.

^{12.} The Qur'an, ii, 260.

^{13.} MU. Imān, 10, read with BU. 'Ilm 6.

^{14.} Nasā'i, Sunnan, v, III.

^{15.} Hanbal, v, 143.

^{16.} BU, Magāzī, 25.

^{17.} MU. Musāfirīn, 120.

^{18.} BU, Zakāt, 44.

careful in ascribing statements to the Prophet, and had to scrutinize them carefully.

The first Caliph Abū-Bakr Ṣiddīq, was the pioneer in this field. Next came 'Umar and 'Alī. During this early period there were other Companions too like 'Āisha, and Ibn 'Umar, who carried out criticism of hadīth.

With the spread of Islām, the hadīth of the Prophet also began to spread. There were many Companions in the Islamic armies who fought as commanders of entire formations as well as ordinary soldiers in the battle-field. Pious worshippers in the silence of the night and teachers all the time, they were constantly spreading the knowledge of sunna. Another factor which helped in disseminating the hadīth was the concern of 'Umar who used to send teachers of Qur'ān and sunna to outlying provinces in good numbers. We know that ten were sent to Basrah alone.¹⁹

To err is human, so, with the spread of hadith in different regions of the Islamic world, the possibility of mistakes arose. Consequently, the necessity for criticism became apparent.

Meanwhile, in the very early stages of the diffusion of hadīth in the Islamic world, the community faced some very grave events, and there was a great upheaval a quarter century after the death of the Prophet. I refer to the fitna of the assassination of 'Uthmān and the war between 'Alī and Mu'āwīya which produced a breech among Muslims. Here, it seems as if the first fabrication of hadīth began in the political sphere, crediting or discrediting the party concerned. One is quite sure that neither 'Alī nor Mu'āwīya took part in it, nor any other Companion, but there were some who fished in troubled waters and, as the English proverb has it, were more Catholic than the Pope.

At this stage, the general trend in hadīth learning became more strict. We have already referred to Ibn Sīrīn's statement regarding isnād. Regional schools of criticism began to appear. For convenience sake we will deal with two prominent schools of that time, the school of Madīna, and the school of Iraq.

We have just seen that the criticism of hadīth began in the life of the Prophet. After his death, Abū Bakr, 'Umar, 'Alī, Ibn'Umar, 'Āisha and other companions took part in it. According to Ibn Hibbān, after 'Umar and 'Alī came the turn of the Successors Ibn al-Musayib (d.93); al-Qāsim b.Muhammad b. Abū Bakr, (d.106); Sālim b. 'Abdullah b. 'Umar (d.106); 'Alī b. Husain b. 'Alī, (d.93); Abū Salamah b. 'Abdur Raḥmān (d.94);

^{19.} Dhahabī, Siyard A'lam al-Nubalā, II, 345, 363.

'Abdullah b. 'Abdullah b. 'Utbah; Khārijah b. Zaid b. Thābit, (d.100); 'Urwah b. al-Zubair, (d.94); Abū Bakr b. 'Abdur Raḥmān b. al-Ḥarīth (d.94) and Sulaimān b. Yasār (c.100).

It is interesting to note that all of these scholars belong to the first century of *Hijra*, though a few of them lived in the first decade of the second century. Later on, in the Madīna region, there were three scholars Zuhrī, Yaḥyā b. Sa'īd, and Hishām b. 'Urwah who learned this science from the above-mentioned scholars. The most famous of these three was Zuhrī (d.124).

In Iraq too the hadīth critics were active in the first century, prominent among them being Sa'īd b. Jubair, Al-Sha'bī, Ṭāwūs, al-Ḥasan al-Baṣrī (d.110) and Ibn Sīrīn (d.110).

All these Iraqi scholars belong to the first century of the Ḥijra, though some of them lived in the first decade of the second century. After them came the names of Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī and Ibn 'Awn. They belong to the first third of the second century.

After this period, the criticism of hadīth entered a new phase. Though journeying for the acquisition of hadīth or the sunna of the Prophet began in the life of the Prophet, and later on many Companions and Successors travelled a lot, but their journeys cannot be compared to the journeys of scholars during the second and third centuries. The prevailing spirit is described in a saying of Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn (d.233):

"There are four kinds of people who never became mature in their life; among them is he who writes down hadith in his own town and never makes a journey for this purpose."

Thus from the second century to a few centuries later a general requirement of a student of hadīth was to make extensive journeys for learning hadīth. As the early scholars mostly learned under the scholars of their own locality, their criticism was confined to the same locality. But when people began to learn hadīth from hundreds and thousands of Shaikhs throughout the Islamic world, their criticisms were not confined to scholars of one centre but they began to scrutinize scholars and their ahādīth in general. Due to the extent of these activities, some new centres emerged for this purpose. Let us go back once again to the most famous critics of the second century. Among them were:

Sufyān al-Thaurī of Kūfa, (97-161) Mālik b. Anas, of al-Madīna (93-179) Shu'bah of Wāsit, (83-100) Al-Auzā'ī of Beirut, (88-158) Hammad b. Salamah, of Başrah (d.167)

Al-Laith b. Sa'd, of Egypt (d.175)

Hammād b. Zaid, of Başrah (d.179)

Ibn 'Uyayanah of Mecca (107-198)

'Abdullah b. al-Mubárak of Marw (118-181)

Yahyā b. Sa'id al-Qaṭṭān, of Basra (d.198)

Wakī' b. al-Jarrāh of Kūfa (d.196)

'Abdur Raḥmān b. Mahdī of Basra (d.198) and

Al-Shāfi'ī of Egypt (d.204)

But the most famous one out of them were Shu'bah, Yahyā b. Sa'īd and Ibn Mahdī.²⁰ Shu'ba was the teacher of Yahyā al-Qaṭṭān in this field.

The above mentioned scholars in turn produced numerous famous scholars in the field of criticism, but the most gifted ones were:

Yaḥyā b. Ma'īn of Baghdād (d.233)

'Alī b. Al-Madīnī of Baṣra (d.234)

Ibn Hanbal of Baghdad (d.241)

Abū Bakr b. Abū Shaibah of Wāsit (d.235)

Ishāq b. Rāhwaih of Marw (d.238)

'Ubaidulah b. 'Umar al-Qawārīrī of Başrah (d.235)

Zuhair b. Ḥarb of Baghdad (d.234)

Out of these the earlier three were the most distinguished scholars in this field. 21

Their most famous students were:

Al-Dhuhali.

Al-Därimī.

al-Bukhārī.

Abū Zur'ah al-Rāzī.

Abū Hätim al-Rāzī.

Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj al-Nisāpurī.

Ahmad b. Shu'aib.

We stop here because this was the most fertile period of hadith studies.22

Methodology of Hadith Criticism

As far as it concerns the criticism of the text or in other words 'documents', there were several methods, but almost all of these methods may be

^{20.} Ibn Hibban, ibid., 16 b.

^{21.} Ibn Ḥibban, ibid., 17 b.

^{22.} For detail and references of history of criticism, see, Al-Azami, Intro. to Tamyīz. 12-18.

brought under the broad heading of 'comparison' or cross question and cross rference. By gathering all the related materials or, say, all the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ concerned, comparing them carefully with each other, one judges the accuracy of the scholars. Ayyūb al-Sakhtiyānī, a Successor, (68-131) says: 'If you wish to know the mistakes of your teacher, then you ought to sit down with others as well.'23

Another scholar Ibn al-Mubārak (118-181) says: 'To reach an authentic statement one needs to compare the words of scholars with each other.'24 Most of the classification of hadīth was done through this method. The scholars applied it from the very early day of Islam.

The method of comparison was practised in many ways. The following are some of them:

- 1. Comparison between the Aḥādīth of different students of one scholar.
- 2. Comparison between the statements of a single scholar at different times.
- 3. Comparison between oral recitation and written documents.
- 4. Comparison between the *ḥadīth* and the related text of the Qur'ān. To illustrate the methods I shall give a few examples which should be

Criticizing *Ḥadīth* by Comparison Between the *Ḥadīth* of Different Students of One Scholar

For an understanding of the full implication of the method, I begin with the third century scholar Ibn Ma'ın (d.233). He went to 'Affān, a pupil of a great scholar Ḥammād b. Salamah, to read the books of Ḥammād to him. 'Affān asked him whether or not he had read those books to any students of Hammād. Upon which Ibn Ma'ın replied, 'I have read these books to seventeen students of Ḥammād before coming to you. 'Affān said 'By Allah I am not going to read these books to you.' Ibn Ma'ın answered that by spending a few dirham he would go to Baṣrah and read there to the students of Ḥammād. He went to Baṣra to Muṣā b. Ismā'ıl another pupil of Ḥammād. Muṣā asked him: 'Have you not read these books to anybody else?' He said 'I have read them completely to seventeen students of Ḥammād and you are the eighteenth one.' Mūṣā asked him what he was going to do with all those readings? Ibn Ma'ın replied: 'Ḥammād b. Salamah committed

sufficient.

^{23.} Dārimī, Sunan, 1, 152.

^{24.} Khatīb, Jāmi', 5a.

mistakes and his students added some more mistakes to his. So I want to distinguish between the mistakes of Ḥammād and those of his students. If I find all the students of Ḥammād committing a certain mistake unanimously, then the source of the mistake is Ḥammād. If I find the majority of Ḥammād's students say something, and some of them go against them then this mistake was committed by that particular student of Ḥammād. In this way I make a distinction between the mistakes of Ḥammād and those of his students.'25

Before advancing further, one may comment on this method in a few words: By this method, Ibn Ma'īn not only discovered the mistakes of Hammād and those of almost every student of Hammād's, but Ibn Ma'īn was also able to grade the different students of Hammād and determine their accuracy. This was the most fundamental basis of judgment when hadīth narrators were graded and put into different categories. This method of Ibn Ma'īn was not invented by him and he was not the first to apply it. We find it in usage from the time of the first Caliph Abū Bakr. There is, of course, a difference in the quantity of the documents concerned, but not the quality, and even this difference was due to dispersal of documents.

Here are a few examples from the very early period.

Abū Bakr and the Comparison of Statements

When a grandmother came to Abū Bakr asking about her share in the inheritance of her grand-son, he replied: "I have not found a share for you in the book of Allah. I knew not that the Prophet has fixed any share for such a case." He asked the Companions about it. Mughīra said that the Prophet gave a grand-mother one-sixth. Upon which Abū Bakr asked him, "Is there anyone with you?" meaning "Can anyone testify to your statement?" Upon which Muḥammad b. Maslamah al-Anṣārī stood up and stated as Mughīra b. Shu'ba had said earlier. Upon this statement, Abū Bakr gave the grand-mother one-sixth. Commenting on this Al-Ḥākim, a great scholar of the fourth century, says that Abū Bakr was the first who took care in accepting the hadīth of the Prophet. When he heard a sunna, he did not base it on the first statement but he had it testified by another. 26

^{25.} Ibn Hibban, Majruḥīn, 11 a.

^{26.} See Al-Hākim, Madkhal, 46. One may think that there is apparently no concordance here between these two statements. But that is not so. When Abū Bakr heard the testimony of Muhammad b. Maslamah he must have made a comparison between their testimonies to find the agreement and disagreement among them.

'Umar and Comparison

We find that 'Umar, the Second Caliph, applied comparison in several cases.

Abū Mūsā al-Ash'arī went to see 'Umar; He went to the door of 'Umar's home and gave his salutation three times, and getting no response, he returned. 'Umar called him and asked him, what prevented him from entering. He said, "I heard the Prophet saying: 'when one of you asks permission three times and it is not granted, he should go away,'" 'Umar asked him to prove this statement of the Prophet otherwise action would be taken against him. Then Abū Mūsā brought a witness. 'Umar told Abū Mūsā Al-Ash'arī that he did not suspect the authenticity of his statement but he was only concerned that people should be more careful in transmitting the *sunna* of the Prophet.²⁷

Abū Hurairah and Comparison

Abū Hurairah transmitted a hadīth from the Prophet saying: 'He who attends the funeral till the prayer is offered for (the dead), his is the reward of one Qīrāt, and he who attends till the dead is buried, for him is the reward of two Qīrāts' 'Abdullah b. 'Umar asked him to be careful as to what he transmitted from the Prophet, as he was transmitting too much. Then Abū Hurairah took the hand of Ibn 'Umar and brought him to 'A'isha, who testified to the narration of Abū Hurairah.²⁸ Later on Ibn 'Umar used to say, "We lost many qarārīt." After the companions of the Prophet, the Successors used the same method. A few names may be mentioned in this connection such as Ibn Abū Mulaikah²⁹, al-Zuhri³⁰ and Shu'ba etc.

I shall give one example from Muslim, the student of Imām al-Buk-hārī.³¹ Ibn 'Abbās once spent a night in the room of his aunt Maimuna. After some time—according to his statement—the Prophet stood up, made the ablution, and began to pray. Ibn 'Abbās did the same, and after making the ablution came and stood to the left of the Prophet, upon which the Prophet turned him from the left, and made him stand on his right. This incident was narrated by scholar Yazīd b. Abū Zinād on the authority of

^{27.} Mālik, Muwatta, Istidhān, 3: also, BU. Buyū', 9 MU. Adab, 36.

^{28.} Hanbal ii. 387.

^{29.} Ibn Hanbal, 'Ilal, 1, 396.

^{30.} BU. Shahādāt, 2.

^{31.} MU. Intr. 23-4, Rāzī, Intr., 158.

Kuraib, from Ibn 'Abbās, stating that Ibn 'Abbās stood on the right of the Prophet and later on he was made to stand on the left. To explain the mistake of this later statement, Imām Muslim applied the following method.

He gathered all the statements of the colleagues of Yazīd, the students of Kuraib, who unanimously agreed that Ibn 'Abbās first stood to the left of the Prophet. As a next step, he gathered all the statements of the colleagues of Kuraib and the students of Ibn 'Abbās, who unanimously agreed that Ibn 'Abbas first stood to the left of the Prophet and then was moved to the right. Later on he collected the other incidents where certain companions had prayed with the Prophet when alone. In all these cases it was confirmed that the correct method is that the other man stood to the right of the Prophet. Consequently, he proved that what was related by Yazīd b. Abū Zinād was a mistake.³²

Example of the Comparisons of the Statement of a Scholar After a Gap of Time

Once 'Ā'isha told her nephew 'Urwah to go to 'Abdullah b. 'Amr and ask him about the hadīth of the Prophet, as he had learned a lot from the Prophet. 'Urwah met 'Abdullah and asked him about the hadīth of the Prophet. One of the hadīth he learned was about how knowledge will be taken away from the earth. 'Urwah returned to 'Ā'isha and narrated what he had learnt. She became discontented about this particular hadīth. After a year or so, she said to 'Urwah: "'Abdullah b. 'Amr has come back, go and ask him ahādīth of the Prophet and then ask him the particular hadīth concerning knowledge and its removal from earth". 'Urwah went then and asked about the ahādīth. He came back to 'Ā'isha, and told her that 'Abdullah repeated the same hadīth once again. Upon which she said, "I think he must be correct, as he has not added anything to it and neither has he shortened it."²³

Comparison Between Written Documents and Aħādīth Transmitted from Memory

Muḥammad b. Muslim and al-Fadl b. 'Abbād were learning Ḥadīth in the presence of Abū Zur'ah. Muḥammad transmitted a ḥadīth which was not accepted by al-Fadl, and he transmitted it in another way. They argued together, then asked Abū Zur'ah to say who was right. Abū Zur'ah referred

^{32.} Muslim, *Tamyīz*, 136-8.

^{33.} Mu. 'Ilm, 14.

to a book and found out the said hadith where it became clear that Muhammad b. Muslim was mistaken.³⁴

A $Had\bar{\imath}th$ was transmitted by Sufyān through Ibn Mas'ud, regarding the raising of hands while going for $Ruh\bar{\imath}u'$. Yahyā b. 'Ādam said that he checked the book of 'Abdullah b. Idrīs where he did not find the particular disputed sentence. Commenting on it, Bukhārī says, 'This is correct, because the book is more accurate (Ahfaz) in the eyes of scholars, e.g., a man sometimes narrates a $had\bar{\imath}th$ and then he goes through the books. In case of difference the version in the book will be accepted as accurate.' 35

'Abdur Raḥmān b. 'Umar transmitted a hadīth through Abū Hurairah concerning Zuhr prayer, which may be delayed in summer from its early time. Abū Zur'ah said that it is incorrect. This hadīth was transmitted on the authority of Abū Sa'īd. 'Abdur Raḥmān b. 'Umar took it very seriously and did not forget it. When he returned to his town, he checked in his book and found himself mistaken. Then he wrote to Abū Zur'ah, acknowledging his mistake, asking him to take trouble and to inform such and such a person and other people who had asked about it from his students, and to tell them about his mistake, and, he said Allah would give him the reward, for shame is much better than hell.³⁶

Comparing the Hadīth with Related Verses of the Qur'an

We find that this method was used by 'Umar in rejecting the hadīth of Fātima bint Qais concerning maintenance money for divorced women.³⁷ This method was also applied by 'Ā'isha in several cases.³⁸

Rational Approach in Hadith Criticism

I have described criticism of hadīth through isnād or the chains of narrators. But was pure reasoning or rational approach used in such criticism?

Reason was applied in criticizing $Had\bar{\imath}th$ at every stage, but strictly speaking, there are limits here to the use of rationalization. The rational faculty helps very little in accepting or discarding the $ah\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}th$ of the Prophet. In most of the cases which are dealt with in $had\bar{\imath}th$ literature, pure reasoning has no place. For example, we find in $had\bar{\imath}th$ books that the Prophet

^{34.} Rāzī, Intr. 337.

^{35.} Bukhārī, Raf'al-Yadain, 9.

^{36.} Rāzī, Introd. 336, see for another example of referring to the book, Mizān, II, 201.

^{37.} Mu. Talāq, 46 referring to the Qur'an, Talāq, i.

^{38.} See Azami, Introduction to Tamyīz, p. 48.

used to sleep on his right side, and before retiring to bed he used to recite certain prayers, $(Du'\bar{a})$. After getting up, he used to recite certain prayers. He used to drink water in three breaths using the right hand for drinking pots, etc. Now let us check all these statements rationally: A man can sleep on his back, on his right side or on his left side, every position is possible. We cannot say, using our rational faculty, that a certain position is possible and the other is impossible. The same may be said about prayers and drinking water etc.

In all these cases 'Aql can neither prove nor disprove. What is correct or incorrect can be decided only through reliable eye witnesses and narrators. Thus reasoning itself leads us to accept the statement of honest and reliable narrators, except in cases where we find that the episode goes against 'Aql (reasoning). From the very beginning, 'Aql was given its proper place in $had\bar{\imath}th$ literature. According to al-Mu'allim $\bar{\imath}$ al-Yam $\bar{\imath}$ n $\bar{\imath}$, it was applied at every stage of $had\bar{\imath}th$, in the learning of $had\bar{\imath}th$, in the teaching of $had\bar{\imath}th$, in judging the narrators, and in judging the authenticity of the $had\bar{\imath}th$.

Ibn Abī Ḥātim al-Rāzī says: "The goodness of a Dinār is known when it is measured against another. Thus if it differs in redness and purity, it will be known that it is a fake. The kind of diamond is examined through measuring with another one. If it differs in sparkle and firmness, it will be known to be glass. The authenticity of a hadīth is known by its coming from reliable narrators and the statement itself must be worthy of being the statement of Prophethood".40

Al-Khaṭīb al-Baghdādī, says: "All the statements come under three categories. Of them is one which is known to be erroneous. The cause of this knowledge is that 'Aql refused to accept it".⁴¹

I have tried to give a broad outline of the methodology of *Ḥadīth* criticism, avoiding technical language as far as it was possible. One may say that it is only a glimpse and no more. But I do hope that it will help a non-specialist who wants to know something about the method of criticism. The results produced by this methodology of criticism will be discussed in the next chapter.

^{39.} Mu'allimi Yamani, Al-Anuwar- al-Kashifa, 6-7.

^{40.} Răzī, Introduction, 351.

^{41.} Khatïb, Kifãyah, p. 17.

CHAPTER VII

GRADING OF SCHOLARS AND ITS IMPACT ON GRADING OF AḤĀDĪTH

The method of criticism which I have discussed helped the scholars in finding out the degree of accuracy of a particular transmitter of hadīth, resulting in his grading in the light of his literary achievement. However the Muḥaddithīn did not consider this sufficient for accepting the transmitted material no matter how accurate the scholars might be.

There were some further requirements which must be met by the transmitter so that his narration may be acceptable.

To accept a hadīth according to the criteria of hadīth critics, it is not sufficient that the statement be authentic in itself. Besides this, the narrator must be 'Adl, i.e. of righteous conduct. In other words his character must be Islamically acceptable.

One of the second century scholars, Ibn al-Mubārak (118-181 A.H., put the problem of personal character in this way. The narrator must be a person who:

Prays in congregation

Does not drink $Nab\bar{\imath}dh$ (which could cause intoxication if kept for long period of time.)

Does not tell a lie and does not suffer from any mental disqualification. A man may be a great scholar, but if his morals are doubtful, a hadith narrated by him is not acceptable. In the opinion of the hadith scholars, all the scholars with the exception of the Companions, whose character is testified to by Allah and his Prophet, need this testimony of character if their word is to be accepted. It is obvious, too, that in most of the cases one has to depend on contemporary authorities to find out the personal character of those people. These contemporaries were sometimes influenced by enmity or favor. To deal with such problems, there have been

^{42.} Khatīb, al-Kifāya, 79.

^{43.} See, Azami, Studies, 305.

detailed discussions among scholars, and certain rules have been laid down.⁴⁴ In some cases it was and still is possible to discover the falsification and lies, going through historical data, checking the documents, kinds of papers and ink used in the writing. This process was applied by the *Muḥaddithīn*, but it could not be a general method because one cannot always discover the moral integrity of the scholar by this way.

However, when these two faculties; moral character or 'Adl, and the highest literary accuracy, both combined in a person, he was called thiqa (trustworthy), whose narrations are generally accepted by Muḥaddithīn.

If a scholar's personal character was acceptable but his literary accuracy was not of the highest grade, and he was the scholar of the second grade, he was called $sad\overline{u}q$ (truthful). His narration would be accepted as a genuine one except in a case where he differed from an authority of higher accuracy than him. Next to him comes a scholar whose character was agreeable but his literary achievement was very limited and he committed many mistakes. He was called $sad\overline{u}q$ yahim. If a scholar was charged with indecency in his character, material transmitted by him was not accepted no matter how big a scholar he might have been.

Thus to be a man whose transmitted materials are accepted, the narrator must fulfill both requirements: moral and literary. Moral weakness cannot be compensated, though in certain cases literary shortcoming may be overcome.

For example, a man who committed many mistakes in transmitting the <code>hadith</code> was called 'weak'. If he narrated a <code>hadith</code> alone and no other scholar could verify his narration, then the <code>hadith</code> cannot be accepted, for it is suspected of having a mistake in its transmission. But if another scholar though himself a weak narrator in his literary achievement, transmitted a <code>hadith</code> which agrees in the meaning and the sense of the early <code>hadith</code>, then it would be accepted, though it would be placed in a very low grade, just like a student passing with grade 'D' ('passed').

A system of grading was worked out to place the accepted or rejected statements of scholars. The later scholars have been more refined in grading. Where early scholars have four grades, the later ones have suggested six. Given below are the gradings of Ibn Hajar (773-852) one of the greatest hadith scholar of the later period. He placed the scholars in twelve grades.

Ṣaḥābah. The Companions of the Prophet.

^{44.} See al-Yamanī, al-Tanki, 52-59.

Thiqātun thabt'un. Those scholars who have been awarded the highest marks, such as thiqatun thabtun, or awthaqun-nās, meaning the most truthful and accurate scholars.

Those who have been awarded good grades without being given superlative degree, such as thiqatun (trustworthy) mutqinun (accurate) etc.

Those whose position is less than grade three, and have been awarded a good grade, such as $sad\overline{u}q$ (truthful).

Those whose grading is lower than No. 4 and given a grade like sadūq yahim. (truthful, but committing mistakes sometimes)

The one who transmitted a little knowledge, and there is no proof of his being unreliable, nor do we have any positive proof of his high accuracy, is called $maqb\bar{u}l$ (acceptable). If his narration is verified by some other scholars' statements he would be named layyin (mild).

One who has more than one student who transmitted $ah\tilde{a}d\bar{i}th$ from him, but scholars did not $(tauth\tilde{i}q)$ declare him authentic is called $majh\bar{u}l$ $al-\dot{h}\bar{a}l$ (meaning one whose integrity is not verified), in other words one whose reliability is externally evident, but about whose reliability nothing is known.

One who has not credit from any scholar on his behalf and some of the scholars have spoken against him, is called $d'a\bar{\imath}f$ (weak).

One who is not known in literary circles at all except through narration of a single scholar, and has not credit of scholars for him is called $majh\overline{u}l$ (unknown).

One who has no certificate of credit at all from the scholars and they have spoken against him giving reasons for their statements, one who committed many mistakes or he was a $f\bar{a}siq$, did not meet the legal requirement of righteousness, or was stupid.

One who was charged with or blamed for forgery, is called *muttaham* bil kadhib.

One who was named Kadhdhāb (liar) waddā '(forgerer).

These gradings were mostly followed by later scholars. For every grade there are many terms that have been used by different scholars. Details can be found in Arabic works. Moreover, there is some difference of meaning in the terms used by some of the early scholars. Therefore, a student must be sure in using the grading terms of the early scholars and the standards for which it was used by the particular scholar. For example some universities have the following gradings for the teaching staff: Teacher, Assistant Professor, Professor.

Other universities have the following grading for the same academic purpose and qualifications: Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, Professor.

While these universities agree on the application of the term Professor, they may differ in the application of the term Assistant Professor. The same is true about certain terms used by the early critics in that the meaning and standard of certain terms used by them differ in their implications. Therefore, when one student has insufficient knowledge of these differences, there is every chance that he may make serious mistakes.

However, these are the gradings mostly used by the later scholars.

I have explained how the critics were able to grade the literary accuracy and personal character of early scholars, and that they were placed by Ibn Hajar in twelve grades. Their system of grading resulted in the grading of ahādīth.

Grading of Ahādīth

Hadīth can be graded into two groups:

Accepted $(maqb\bar{u}l)$ and rejected $(mard\bar{u}d)$

(1) The accepted ones may be divided into two groups:

Sahīh. (authentic)

Hasan. (agreeable)

Both groups are sub-divided into two sub-groups:

Authentic by itself. (Sahīh li dhātihi)

Authentic owing to presence of others. (Saḥīḥ-li ghairhi)

Ḥasan li dhātihi. (agreeable by itself)

Hasan li ghairihi. (agreeable owing to the existence of others)

As a matter of fact this last one is a weak $had\bar{\imath}th$ which acquires strength from other $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ which verify it because the same subject or the same sort of problem dealt with in other $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$, which thus support the weaker one.

(2) The rejected ones may be divided into two groups:

Rejected as such, but may be accepted if it acquired strength from outside. However, rejected ones have many names.

Rejected totally.

We shall discuss it later on.

Requirements for Hadīth Sahih (Authentic Hadīth)

All of its narrators must belong to grades one to three mentioned below:

- (1) Continuity of the chain must be preserved, which means the completeness of the chain of transmitters all the way back to the final authority.
- (2) Should not be an isolated one, $(Sh\bar{a}dh)$, which means that particular $had\bar{\imath}th$ must not be in contradiction with the narrations of the other authorities who were more in number while belonging to the same group or must not be in disagreement with an authority who has higher reputation than the one under discussion.
- (3) Should not have any hidden defect. For example a trustworthy scholar transmitted a hadīth as being the statement of the Prophet, while majority of the scholar narrated the same hadīth as the statement of the Companion. Here it becomes clear that this particular scholar committed a mistake in ascribing the statement to the Prophet. But if we do not go into detailed study of the subject and only look to the single chain of the hadīth it would appear to be the correct one due to the grading of narrators and fulfillment of other conditions. I have mentioned hidden defect, that is called 'illa qādiha, which implies that the defects are not entirely taken into account. It may be put in the following way:

Usually all the public services require a health certificate of the candidate. Sometimes a candidate looks very handsome and fit for the duty, while the medical examination declares him unfit for the job. In other cases, some of the candidates have a clear defect in their shape or body, but after medical check up they are declared fit for the post, because their apparent defect does not affect the ability of carrying out the duty. The same is true of 'ilal al-hadīth, illness of hadīth. In some cases it affects the authenticity of hadīth and is called, 'illah al-qādiha, while in other cases it does not.

Ḥadīth Ḥasan Lidhātihi (Ḥasan by Itself.)

All the above mentioned conditions for hadīth ṣaḥīḥ are required for hadīth ḥasan lidhātihi, except that any one or all the narrators would be of grade 4, ṣadūq, or other terms equal to it.

Ḥadīth Ḥasan Lighairihi

If the narrator of hadith belongs to grade 5 or 6 and has some other $ah\bar{a}dith$ supporting it either in form or in sense only, it would count as $hasan\ li\ ghairih\bar{\iota}$. However, it ought to be remembered that if a chain of $isn\bar{a}d$ consists of ten authorities, and nine out of them belong to second

grade and only one of them belongs to grade 8, then the hadith would be rejected. The overall acceptability is based on the weakest authority. Thus a single weak narrator would result in weakening the hadith. If one of the narrators was labeled a liar, and the rest of them were thiqah (authentic) and the hadith is not known through other channels, then it would be graded as $maud\bar{u}'$ (spurious). Even if it has been proved authentic by other $isn\bar{u}d$, the hadith would be said to be $maud\bar{u}'$ bi $h\bar{u}dh\bar{u}$ al- $isn\bar{u}d$, 'spurious by this chain'.

It is clear now that in grading the $had\bar{\imath}th$, scholars checked the biography of every narrator who took part in transmission of the $had\bar{\imath}th$. Later on they verified the narrated $had\bar{\imath}th$ with other scholars' narrations of the same $had\bar{\imath}th$ to find confirmation or contradiction, and then they passed their judgment after all possible precautions.

This thorough search for verification gave the scholars ample information about every scholar: how many $had\bar{\imath}th$ he transmitted, and in how many cases he had other authorities who verified $ah\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}th$ transmitted by him, and how many $ah\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}th$ were transmitted by him alone and no one shared with him. If a narrator who was graded as thiqah, (trustworthy), transmitted some $ah\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}th$ which were very limited in number compared to the quantity of his transmission, it would be accepted as $sah\bar{\imath}h$ $ghar\bar{\imath}b$, (authentic but strange). But if the narrator was of grade 4 or lower, then it would be graded as munkar. However, if the narrator related $ah\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}th$ frequently which are not in agreement with others either in $isn\bar{\imath}d$ or in the text, then the scholar would be graded as $matr\bar{\imath}h$, which means his narrations will not be accepted and $ah\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}th$ transmitted by him cannot be taken to verify other scholars' $ah\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}th$.

It may come to some minds that in later periods a liar might have fabricated many $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ and fabricated first class $isn\bar{a}d$ for this sake, and thus was able to circulate those $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ as genuine in the circle of $muhaddith\bar{i}n$ who check $isn\bar{a}d$ only. But it should be quite clear now that besides checking the data concerning that particular narrator, they would check the same $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ to see whether or not they are narrated by other scholars who were the students of the authority mentioned. Thus they would find that the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ are not known except by this narrator, and would label him a liar.

As a matter of fact, the approach of $muhaddith\bar{\imath}n$ was very realistic. In our personal experience, if after years of dealing we find someone always

^{45.} See Mīzān, iii, 140-1.

correct, then in certain cases we believe his statement even if he has no evidence, unless we have any positive ground on which to falsify his statement. So, after long trial, if we find a narrator accurate in relating hundreds of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$, and he was graded as trustworthy and one who always told the truth then in a case where he has no evidence to support him, we would accept his statement till the contrary is proved.

Rejected Ahādīth

I have discussed the requirements and conditions laid down for accepting any hadīth. A hadīth which did not satisfy anyone of these was rejected. However, the causes of rejection may be divided in three groups:

(1.) Rejection owing to defect in narrator. (2.) Weakness owing to discontinuity of *isnād*. (3.) Weaknesses owing to some incidental reasons.

(1) Rejection owing to defect in narrator

According to Ibn Hajar's grading—as I have mentioned earier—any narrator belonging to grade six or lower than it would cause weakness in hadīth. However, this weakness would differ. For example if a hadīth was transmitted by a narrator of 12th grade only it would be called spurious (mauḍū'). If he was of 11th grade it would be called Bātil. If the narrator belonged to grade 10 his hadīth would be munkar. The narrators belonging to these three groups and their narrations cannot be taken as witness to fortify other ahādīth. However, if a narrator belongs to either of the grades from six to eight his hadīth would be weak, but if he has support of another narrator who belongs to the same grade or to a higher one and narrated ahādīth of the same sense and substance, then this weak hadīth would be counted as Hasan Li Ghairihi.

(2) Weakness owing to discontinuity of isnad

In this category one may mention, Mursal, Munqati', Mu'dal. Sometimes $mauq\bar{u}f$ and $maq\dot{t}u'$ are also mentioned. But as these $a\dot{h}\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ have others than the Prophet as final authority, they are not legally binding.

Mu'an'an also comes in this category if the narrator who used this term was famous for tadlīs.46 In his case it would be counted as a broken chain. But if the narrator was not known for practicing tadlīs, and he had learned from the authority from whom he narrated though we do not know that he learned that particular hadīth from him, or in case we have no positive

^{46.} For the meaning of tadlis see p. 65.

proof of his learning, but there was a possibility of his learning as both lived in one city in one period, then it would be counted as an unbroken isnād.

Tadlis means concealment of defect in goods by merchants who want to sell them. The term is taken from dalas which means mixing of light with darkness. This meant a transmitter narrated a hadith from an authority whom he met but from whom he did not learn that particular hadith but had learned it from someone else going through that authority. Thus he did not mention the immediate authority and transmitted it from higher authority using a term which can be used for both direct and indirect learning, or used a scholar's name which was not commonly known instead of using the name for which he was famous.

Ibn 'Uyaynah (107-198) is one of the most famous and reliable students of Al-Zuhri (51-124). Once he transmitted a hadīth saying: qāla al-Zuhrī: (Zuhri reported). The students stopped him asking whether he heard that particular hadith from al-Zuhri? He repeated the same sentence, and was interrupted by the students. He replied: I heard this hadith from 'Abdur Razzāq (127-207) who transmitted it on the authority of Ma'mar (96-153) who transmitted it from al-Zuhri. As Ibn 'Uyayanah was the famous student of al-Zuhrī, he used the word qāla (said) which can be used in direct hearing from the authority or through someone else. This is similar to the modern situation when we say that the king or the President said so and so, though we have not opportunity to hear him directly, except through press or TV etc. But this expression may be used in direct hearing as well. Therefore, the one who practised that sort of dubious term was called mudallis. Many books have been written on people who committed this sort of discrepancy. Detailed study led to the grading of scholars. They have been put by Al-'Alā'ī in five categories:

- a. Those who committed tadlīs very rarely and ought not to be placed in this category, such as Yahyā b. Sa'īd al-Ansārī etc.
- b. Those who practiced some tadlis, but their narrations were accepted by early scholars for certain reasons such as their fame as great scholars. They were supposed to be aware of the responsibility they were taking on their shoulders by dropping the authority. Or their tadlis was very little in proportion to their total materials. Or they left out the names of trustworthy scholars only.
- c. Those who practiced tadlis, were categorized by scholars in various way. Some were counted as people belonging to second group, while

- other scholars counted them of lower grade and did not accept a hadīth from them till they explicitly described their direct learning.
- d. Those who practiced *tadlis* and left out even weak and unknown authorities. The chain of their narrations was accepted as unbroken if they explicitly described their direct learning.
- e. Those who were weak narrators themselves and practiced *tadlīs*. The rule is that transmission by those who belong to grades c and d would not be accepted if they did not explicitly say that they learned those *ahādīth* directly. Transmission by those in grade e was rejected. Narration by those in grades a and b, would be counted an unbroken series even if their terminology does not denote direct learning, except in cases where we have positive information contrary to this. But if a narrator explicitly made a false statement that he learned certain *hadīths* from 'certain' authority, then upon being exposed, he would be counted as a liar, and thus all the *ahādīths* transmitted by him would be rejected.

(3) Weakness owing to some incidental reasons

In this category are Maqlūb, Mudtarab and Mu'allal ahādīth.

- (a) $Maql\bar{u}b$ means upside down. It has been divided in two groups.
- i) Reversion in the naming of the authority as it was attributed to someone other than its real transmitter. Thus if it was famous that a $h\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$ was narrated by Ibn Dinar from Ibn 'Umar and then someone deleted Ibn Dinar's name and put another name of the same generation, imagining that nobody would transmit this $had\bar{a}th$ by this chain, he would be able to boast that he knew another $isn\bar{a}d$ for this $h\bar{a}dith$ which is not known to other scholars. As a result people would learn this particular $had\bar{a}th$ from him. Those who did this intentionally were called $S\bar{a}riq$ al- $had\bar{a}th$. (Stealer of $had\bar{a}th$.)
- ii) Reversion in the name or in the text by reversing the arrangement, for example: Ka'b b. Murra or Murra b. Ka'b.
- (b) Mudiarab is a hadīth in which the transmitting authority differed and it was not possible to prefer one narration to another, as both narrators were of equal standard. This defect occurs sometimes in isnād, sometimes in matn, and sometimes in both. But if it was possible to prefer one narration to another one it would be called al-Rājiḥ. For example two trustworthy students of Zuhrī differed in a narration of a hadīth, but one of them studied under him for a very long period while the other did so for a short period. Here the first one's will be accepted as the correct narration of Zuhrī.

Example of Mudiarab: It is a sin to pass in front of a man who is praying. So while praying it is better to put something in front of oneself as Sutra, so that people could pass. But in one hadith it occurs that if one does not find anything to put in front, then he should at least draw a line.⁴⁷

The following are some of its $isn\bar{a}d$.

Bishr-Ismā'īl-Abū 'Amr b. Muḥ. b. Ḥuraith-His grandfather-Abū Huraira-Prophet.

Thaurī—Ismā'īl—Abū 'Amr b. Ḥuraith—His father—Abū Ḥuraira—Prophet. Humaid—Ismā'īl—Abū 'Amr. b. Muḥ. b. 'Amr—grandfather—Ḥuraith b. Salim-Abū Ḥuraira.

Wuhaib-Ismā'īl-Abū 'Amr b. Huraith-grandfather.

Ibn Juraij—Ismā'īl—Huraith b. 'Ammār—grandfather Ḥuraith b. Sulaimān Ibn 'Uyaynah—Ismā'īl Abū Muḥ. b. 'Amr. b. Ḥuraith—Grandfather.

(c) Al-Ḥadīth al-Mu'all: Sick ḥadīth, that is usually a ḥadīth which apparently seems accurate but has some hidden defect. This defect occurs mostly in isnād, as a ḥadīth was mursal but someone related it as muṭṭasil or it was a saying of the Companion but in some ḥadīth it was attributed to the Prophet.

Sometimes it occurs in the text itself, for example text of two aḥādīth got mixed up, or a scholar made a mistake in copying or missed a line in copying. Al-Hākim has divided this defect into ten kinds. There are many books on the subject, perhaps the largest one is Al-Ilal by Daraqutnī, which is still in manuscript form.

We have discussed up till now different kinds of weak $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$, that is those which have certain types of shortcomings. The worst of these $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ are the spurious ones which were, in fact, falsely attributed to the Prophet. We will, therefore, now deal with this kind of false $had\bar{i}th$ in some detail in a separate chapter.

^{47.} See, Suyutī, *Tadrīb*, I, pp. 262-63.

CHAPTER VIII

FABRICATION OF HADITH CAUSES AND MEANS OF ELIMINATION

It is a well known fact that some people are always trying to forge valuable things such as diamonds, jewels, or works of art, etc. For Muslims, except the Qur'an, there was and is nothing more precious than the sunna of the Prophet. Therefore, from different motives and for different purposes, different kinds of people fabricated a variety of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$. Some of them were heretics, others were those who had lost their countries to Islam and still others illiterate, though sometimes well-intentioned, Muslims themselves.

The attribution of false statements to the Prophet may be divided into two categories:

- (1.) Intentional fabrication of hadīth. That is usually called hadīth maudu'.
- (2.) Unintentional attribution of a false hadīth to the Prophet by mistake despite due care or due to carelessness. That is usually called hadīth Bāṭil.

The result in both conditions is the same, that is a statement is falsely attributed to the Prophet. Therefore scholars who collected $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ of this sort put them together and did not make separate books for these two types. In many cases, they did not draw a line between $Maud\bar{u}'$ and $B\bar{a}til$ even in judgment though it would have been useful to know it.

Intentional Fabrication of Hadith

1. Those who committed this great sin belong to different categories. Among them were Zindīqs who could not fight Islam openly, and took shelter under the cloak of scholarship. The Zindīqs included Mughira b. Sa'd al-Kūfi and Muḥammed b. Sa'id al-Shāmī who was crucified for treachery. They imitated the learned scholars, fabricated aḥādīth and narrated them to cast doubt in people's minds. Muḥammed b. Sa'īd ash-Shāmī who was crucified reported from Humaid from Anas from the Prophet say-

ing: "I am the seal of the Prophets, there will be no prophet after me unless Allah wills." He forged this exception to support the heresy and infidelity to which he summoned people and to buttress his claim to be a prophet.

However, a very important point ought to be noticed. There were a number of people who were reported to have said that they fabricated certain $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ or so many $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$. Their claims have been reported without giving any detail of the materials. Sometimes this statement was given by someone who was going to be punished for a certain crime. In some other cases it is attributed to a certain person that after repentance, he confessed that he fabricated so many $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$, and he did not know what to do. Early scholars have mentioned their statements without giving any detail. In my opinion, this statement is not sufficient. After confession we grade him as a liar. And it might be a part of a conspiracy that when that person was unable to destroy the faith of the people in the sunna of the Prophet, he used this final trick. It is unanimously held that if a man told a lie about the hadīth of the Prophet, his transmission would not be accepted even after he repented. Therefore, to judge the fabrication of hadīth, we cannot depend on the statement of a liar.

- 2. There were some weak-minded people who fabricated aḥādīth with good intentions in their mind. Abū 'Umāra al-Marwazī says that Abū 'Isma was asked, "Where did you get from 'Ikrima from Ibn 'Abbās ahādīth about the excellence of the Qur'ān sūra by sūra, when 'Ikrima's students do not possess this?" It ought to be noticed how the scholars were making cross references to detect the fault and falsehood. He replied, "I saw that people had turned away from the Qur'ān and occupid themselves with the Fiqh of Abū Hanīfa and the Maghāzī of Muḥammad b. Ishāq, so I forged these ahādīth seeking reward in the next world."
- 3. There were some story tellers who used to stand in the market places or in the mosques and used to attribute $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ falsely to the Prophet.

Scholars mention a class of fabricators who used to fabricate for the sake of rulers. It is very remarkable that one finds only one example of this sort which has been repeated by the scholars.

4. There were certain religious men who fabricated to support their sectarian attitude, either in law or in theology, or in politics or due to their prejudice for race or country or certain people, or those who fabricated for their personal interest. These classes should be put under the category of the people who fabricated intentionally.

Unintentional Fabrication of Hadīth

There are however, other people who committed mistakes though they did not fabricate the statement itself.

- 1. Those who took a well known hadith and gave it a new isnād for the sake of novelty, so that they might become a focus for learning.
- 2. Those scholars who committed mistakes in transmission, e.g. while isnād was ended with the Companion or Successors only, he erroneously attributed statements to the Prophet which were as a matter of fact the sayings of the Companions or Successors.

One ought to bear in mind that as every $had\bar{\imath}th$ consists of text and $isn\bar{a}d$, and every $isn\bar{a}d$ contains many names which usually end with the Prophet, it was quite easy to commit a mistake of this sort where the $isn\bar{a}d$ stopped one step earlier.

- 3. Pious people who did not take the trouble to be exact, and did not give the time and attention required for the study of $had\bar{\imath}th$, and were very busy in their ' $ib\bar{\imath}adah$ (worship) committed many mistakes in transmitting $ah\bar{\imath}ad\bar{\imath}th$. Yahya b. Sa'id al-Qattān, a second century scholar, reported that "I have not seen more falsehood in anyone than in those who have a reputation for goodness." It implies that the $Muhaddith\bar{\imath}n$ were well aware and not impressed by apparent worship and piety.
- 4. Scholars who learned aḥādīth from certain shaikhs, and later discovered that there were some other aḥādīth transmitted by the same shaikhs which they had missed. Instead of being content with what they learnt directly from the authorities or being precise about differentiating what they learnt directly and what they did indirectly, they transmitted all, pretending that they learnt them.
- 5. Those who learnt books from authorities but did not copy what they learnt at that time. When they grew old and were asked aḥādīth by students, their ignorance and desire to appear scholars lead them to transmit aḥādīth from copies of the same book which they acquired, but it did not contain notes certifying their learning. It seems that in the 4th century this sort of mistake was common. It ought to be noted that scholars did not allow the transmission of aḥādīth from a book, say for example Ṣaḥīḥ of Bukhārī, other than the copy which one read to the Shaikh with the chain going back to the author. Then it had to contain a note that a certain student studied it under a certain Shaikh or that the Shaikh permitted him to transmit this book, because it was quite possible that two copies of the same work may differ. There is another opinion, a milder one, that a very

famous book like $\S a h \bar{i} h$ of Bukhārī, copies of which were and are very common, may be transmitted if the scholar thinks that the copy in hand, even though it does not contain a note of learning, is similar to one from which he had learnt. However, early scholars did not agree with this, and in some similar cases they labeled the scholar a liar.

- 6. People lacked the necessary qualifications for teaching of hadith, that is a sharp memory, alertness or a correct book. Then a student came and read $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ to them which were not transmitted by them but they ignorantly confirmed them. It ought to be noticed that many times students used to do this trick on their teachers to test the knowledge of their teacher. If they found that the teacher was alert and did not fall in their trap they learned from him.
- 7. Scholars who travelled in search of hadith and were recognized muhaddithin, but lost their books. Later on when they taught students they used copies other than their own, without bearing in mind that there might be some differences between two copies of the same work. Or they transmitted from their defective memories. On this account they resorted to guesswork (takhmin). No doubt the value of what they taught depended on whether their book was sound or not.

Means for Detection of Fabrication in Hadith

Scholars who spent a great deal of their lives with the aḥādīth of the Prophet developed a sense which they could use instantly in detecting error. Their example was like that of a man who lived with a beloved friend for scores of years, knew him very well in every situation and so could easily say which statement belonged to him and which not. Similarly a literary critic who studies a poet for a long time and becomes fully acquainted with his style can, on the basis of his perception and personal experience, easily detect a poem which does not belong to the poet. However Muḥaddithīn did not depend solely on personal experience as it may be counted a form of subjective criticism. In short if a ḥadīth was not transmitted by any trustworthy scholar, and there was a liar or a person accused of lying in the chain of transmission it was said to have been fabricated by that person.

However, scholars laid down certain rules according to which one could reach conclusions about the spuriousness or genuineness of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ even without going into detailed study of $isn\bar{a}d$. Here is a summary of the method described by Ibn al-Qayyim.

Ibn al-Qayyim's description of general rules about rejection of hadith are as follows:

If the hadith contains an exaggerated statement that the Prophet could not have made. For example a false hadith attributed to the Prophet that when one pronounces 'La ilāha ill Allah' God creates from this sentence a bird with seventy thousand tongues.

Experiment rejects it.

Ridiculous kind of attribution.

Contradicts a well known Sunna.

Attributes a statement to the Prophet which was supposed to have been made in the presence of a thousand Companions but all of them supposedly concealed it.

The statement has no resemblance to other statements of the Prophet. Sounds like the saying of mystics or medical practitioners.

Contradicts the clear and obvious meanings of the Qur'an.

Inadequate in its style.

Besides these general rules, the entire system of $isn\bar{a}d$ was applied to detect the fabrication.

Scholars had knowledge of almost all the narrators, how many $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ they transmitted, how many of these were confirmed by other narrators throughout the Muslim world and how many of them have not been confirmed by other narrators. For this purpose they used the term $La\ Yut\bar{a}ba'u$.

In many cases even if a hadīth was well known and authentic but the scholars suspected that a certain narrator who transmitted the hadīth had not received it through proper channel, they would check the ink and the paper to see whether it was a new writing or an old one.⁴⁸

These are some of the tests which were applied by scholars prior to, or if they did not use it, instead of *isnād* criticism.

Literature on Spurious Aḥādith

The early scholars did not merely compile works on spurious $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$. They also noted such $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ in the books of 'Ilal, biographies or histories etc. It seems that the first scholar who devoted his book totally to this purpose was Husain b. Ibrāhīm al-Jauzaqānī (d.543). Later on a great number of books were compiled on the subject. The most useful one for a layman is that of Shaukānī called al-Fawai'd al-Majmū'ah Fi al-Ahādīth al-Maūdu'ah, edited by Mu'allimī Yamānī.

^{48.} For detail see, Azami, Introduction to Tamyiz, P. 78-9.

Part Two: Hadith Literature

1. Earlier Hadith Books: What Happened to Them?

After extensive research it has been found that in the pre-Islamic era some Arabic poetry and some sayings of wise men were recorded. But it is quite safe to assume that the history of Arabic literature begins with the holy Qur'an, the first book in the Arabic language.

As far as hadīth literature is concerned, I have established in my doctoral thesis Studies in Early Ḥadīth literature that even in the first century of the Hijra many hundred booklets of hadīth were in circulation. If we add another hundred years, it would be difficult to enumerate the quantity of booklets and books which were in circulation. Even by the most conservative estimate they were many thousands.¹

Nature of the Books

The books or booklets which appeared in the first, or even in the early second century, might be put in two categories:

Books containing the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ of the Prophet only, mere collections, without any sort of arrangement of the material.

Booklets containing $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ of the Prophet mixed up with legal decisions of the rightly guided Caliphs and other Companions as well as Successors. These materials were also not arranged systematically and formed only some sort of collections.

From the middle of the first century of Hijra, books on separate subjects of practical interest began to appear. The booklet of the famous Companion and the Scribe of the Prophet, Zaid b. Thābit (d. 45) on $Fara^{i}id$ (share of inheritance) deserves mention here. Later on we find books mentioned by authorities relating to judicial problems such as marriage and divorce, compensation for injuries etc. Thus in the early era when systematic compilation

For estimation and detailed study, see, Azami, Studies in Early Hadith Literature, 34-182.

began the books mixed the aḥādīth of the Prophet with the judicial decisions of Muslim authorities and scholars. At this stage it seems that every book was about a single subject.

In the second century the trend changed a little and books covering almost all the legal problems began to appear. The book of Imām Mālik called al-Muwaṭṭa' belongs here. It was arranged according to chapters on law covering the whole range of human life, from worship, zakāt; ḥajj, marriage, divorce, to agriculture and trade etc. It is a compilation of the aḥādīth of the Prophet as well as the opinions of the Companions and Successors.

It is safe to assume that thousands of books in hadith literature, which were in circulation in the 2nd century, were not arranged chapterwise. The books which were arranged according to chapters contained a mixture of ahādīth of the Prophet and the sayings and decisions of the Companions and Successors. However, from the end of the second century the literary trend began to change and books containing only the aḥādīth of the Prophet with certain systematic arrangement began to appear. Later on in the third and fourth centuries most of the books which appeared contained the aḥādīth of the Prophet only. Some books appeared in this period as well which were compiled on the pattern of the second century, such as Musannaf of 'Abdur Razzāq and Ibn Abū Shaiba (d. 235 A.H.) or al-Awsat of Ibn al-Mundir (d.319). However, the bulk of the literature which was produced by the Muhaddithin contained the ahādith of the Prophet only. These books were compiled with different patterns, and were called musnad, Jāmi', Saḥīḥ, Sunan, mustakhraj, or Mu'jam. Besides the pure ahādīth literature hundreds of other books on the subjects relating to $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ of the Prophet were compiled. We shall discuss some of the ahādīth books with special reference to one important book of each kind. Some of the books relating to the subjects concerning hadīth of the Prophet will be listed.

No doubt most of the early books have either been lost or absorbed by the later encyclopedic literature of hadith, and thus did not retain their separate entity. But if we understand the literary style of that period correctly we can still locate or rather reproduce many early books. Of course, we may not be entirely sure of their form, but we can produce with certainty the original materials belonging to the early authorities. Let us see the literary style of that period.

What Happened to the Earlier Hadith Literature?

I have mentioned earlier that hundreds and thousands of books of hadīth were in circulation in the first and second century. Only a very

small amount of this hadīth literature has survived. It could be said that either what I have described is totally wrong, or these books were in existence at sometime but were lost later. This second hypothesis raises another problem, i.e. of the negligence of the hadīth of the Prophet by Muslim scholars. Is it possible that they did not feel any necessity of hadīth literature and so it was destroyed?

As a matter of fact, my position is precise and correct. These books were not destroyed nor did they perish, but were absorbed into the work of later authors. When the encyclopedia-type books were produced, scholars did not feel the necessity to keep the early books or booklets, and so, slowly, they disappeared. To explain this point I will describe the method of quotations in early days which would prove my point.

Methodology of Quotations in Hadith Literature

No doubt the *ḥadīth* literature at our disposal belongs mostly to the third century. There was a gap of more than two centuries between the authors of these books and the Prophet. What was the level of literary honesty in the learned circle? It is indeed astonishing that they had developed a system of references and of quotations which is unsurpassed even by modern researchers.

The modern method of references and quotations consists of:

Quotations word by word and exact copying put between double quotation marks.

Quoting exactly word by word, but making necessary interpolations enclosed in square brackets.

Quoting exactly but dropping irrelevant details indicating material left out by three dots.

Quoting by paraphrasing, in one's words and expressions.

However, in all these cases one refers to the authorities from whom he quoted, mentioning either books and authors or only one of them.

Muhaddithin's Pattern of Quotations

Going through the writing of *Muhaddithin*, we find almost a similar pattern of quotations. Here are a few examples.

First method of quotation:

Mālik reported a hadīth in Muwatta' as follows:

Mālik from Ishāq b. 'Abdullah b. Abū Ţalha from Abū Murra, maulā of 'Aqīl b. Abū Ṭālib from Abū Wāqid al-Laithī . . .

The same *ḥadīth* is recorded by Bukhari with the same wordings², adding an additional authority, Ismā'īl, who reported this on the authority of Mālik.

The same hadīth is reported by Muslim on the authority of Qutaiba b. Sa'īd who transmitted it on the authority of Mālik with the same wordings.³

The same hadīth is reported by Tirmidhī on the authority of Mālik with the same wordings.4

The hadīth has been reported several times by Ibn Ḥanbal and other authors as well. Though I have produced it as an example of quotations word by word, it ought to be remembered that in quoting here the book is not referred to at all. Reference is to the authority through whom this information was obtained. Needless to say that the book was used in transmitting this ḥadīth.

We may conclude that when certain scholars transmit $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ from a certain teacher, and their wordings are very closely similar, it means that in transmitting the information a book was used and memory was not the only basis.

Zuhrī (51-125) compiled a biography of the Prophet which was absorbed into the works of later authors and thus perished in the course of time as a work on its own. Some modern researchers have doubts about this report. Recently almost the whole work of Zuhrī, which is more than 200 pages, has been published in one of the *ḥadīth* works of the third century which has came to light for the first time. Even the editor did not notice that it was the work of Zuhrī. A detailed study was carried out, and it was found that several students of Zuhrī reported portions of this book., This information was recorded by authors who died some 150 years after Zuhrī yet their wordings are very similar, which is almost impossible except if the original book was used.⁵

Second method of quotation:

Quoting exactly word by word, but adding external material in the body of a book.

Most of the people who listened to aḥādīth and copied them out had their own books. Students felt at liberty to include additional material even

^{2.} Bukhārī, 'Ilm 8, hadīth No. 66, with the omission of only one word.

^{3.} Muslim, Ṣaḥīḥ, Salām 26, page 1713, with the omission of only one word.

^{4.} Tirmidhī, Sunan isti'dhān, 29, with the omission of only one word.

^{5.} See, Azami, Introduction to Sīra of Zuhrī. (Under print).

in a fixed text to clarify some obscure word, or to express their own opinion. As any additional material would have a completely different $isn\bar{a}d$ or the name of the inserter, there was no danger of distorting the text.

Examples for this sort of interpolation may be found in almost every book. Here is an example taken from $Sah\bar{\iota}h$ of Muslim.

"Qatāda has narrated a hadīth like this with another chain of transmitters. in the hadith transmitted by Jarir on the authority of Sulaimān, Qatada's further words are: When (the Qurān) is recited (in prayer), you should observe silence, and (the following words are) not found in the hadith narrated by anyone except by Abū Kāmil who heard it from Abū 'Awāna (and the words are): Verily Allah vouchsafed through the tongue of the Apostle of Allah (may peace by upon him) this: Allah listens to him who praises Him. Abū Ishāq (a student of Imam Muslim) said: Abu Bakr has (critically) discussed this hadīth. Imām Muslim said: Whom can you find a more authentic transmitter of hadīth than Sulaimān? Abū Bakr said to him (Imām Muslim): What about the hadith narrated by Abū Huraira i.e. the hadīth that when the Qur'an is recited (in prayer) observe silence? He (Abū Bakr again) said: Then, why have you not included it (in your compilation)? He (Imām Muslim) said: I have not included in this every hadith which I deem authentic: I have recorded only such ahādīth on which there is an agreement amongst the Muhaddithīn on their being authentic."6

This hadith has been transmitted by Qatāda with the same chain of transmitters (and the words are): "Allah, the Exalted and the Glorious, commanded it through the tongue of His Apostle; Allah listens to him who praises Him".

Third method of quotation

Quoting exactly, but dropping irrelevant material.

For the third type of quotation we may refer to hundreds of places in $\S a h \bar{\imath} h$ of Bukhārī. It was his habit to cut down $had\bar{\imath}th$ and quote the portion relevant to the chapter, though he quotes complete $had\bar{\imath}th$ as well.

For example:

Bukhārī puts the heading of a chapter

"Women's ungratefulness to their husbands, and disbelief is of different grades."

^{6.} MU. Salāt 63.

Later on he recorded the following hadīth on the authority of Ibn 'Abbās reporting that the Prophet said: I was shown Hell Fire, and most of its inhabitants were women, as they practise Kufr. It was asked: Do they disbelieve (Yakfurna) in Allah? He said (Not for their disbelief in Allah) but for their ingratitude to their husbands and ingratitude to kindness. Even if you were to treat one of them kindly for ever, but if she later saw anything (displeasing) in you, she would say I have never seen any good in you'.8

The same hadīth has been repeated by Bukhārī at least six times in different places. In the chapter of 'Prayer at the time of solar eclipse it is given in full detail, and the portion which has been recorded here appears at the end of that hadīth.9

Fourth method of quotation

Fourth type of quotation was that of paraphrasing.

It is called in the term of Muḥaddithīn: Riwāya bil Ma'na which means to transmit a ḥadīth using one's own words and expressions. Some of the scholars disapproved of this method while the majority accepted it with the following conditions:

1. The narrator must be a scholar in Arabic language, who knows the words of hadīth and their full implications and then relates it with some other expression which gives the same sense and meaning though the words were changed. However, it was accepted only in the early days.

After the books were compiled transmission of $had\bar{\imath}th$ after translation into one's own expression was forbidden.

The early scholars were not fond of paraphrasing. They tried to stick to the words they learned from their teachers, but due to failure of memory they used a synonymous word or an expression equivalent to what they heard.

We have described how the Muslim scholars specially Muḥaddithīn in the first century introduced the system of quotations with complete literary honesty. However, there is a fundamental difference between the present day literary style of quotations and theirs. The methodology applied by Muhaddithīn did not allow anyone to quote any ḥadīth verbally or from

^{7.} The word kufr has two senses, disbelief and ingratitude. The Prophet meant the latter but they thought that he meant the former.

^{8.} BU. Imān, 21. For its repetition and dropping of details, see BU. hadīth No. 431, 748, 1052, 3202 5197.

^{9.} BU. Khusūf 9.

any book, except if he had obtained permission from relevant authorities to use it, by one of the recognized methods of learning $had\bar{\imath}th.^{10}$ Thus the terms used in $isn\bar{\imath}ad$ such as $Haddathan\bar{\imath}a$ and $Akhbaran\bar{\imath}a$ etc. are a kind of certificate of permission by which a narrator explains how he got this piece of information and is entitled to pass it on to others. But if a scholar has no permission from the authorities, and he obtained the book by buying or copying or as a gift from some unauthorized person and began to quote or transmit $had\bar{\imath}th$ from it he was named a liar. The scholar must mention that he found it in such and such book but even then the piece of information coming by this way had no value till it is proved by some other means, owing to possibility of a false copy or statements attributed to authorities. The authenticity of most modern documents would be doubtful if the strict criteria of $Muhaddith\bar{\imath}n$ were applied to them.

In conclusion, there remains one more point. Under certain conditions the use of one's own expression was permitted and thus there was always a chance of a slight change in the sense. As it is permissible to select only a portion of the hadīth on condition that it's meaning, sense and impression did not change, there was always a chance that the original document might contain some more information. To make sure of these points constant checks were made through methods called muṭābi'āt and shawāhid. Thus in case some extra information was found in the narration of a scholar while his colleagues were silent, then if the narrator was of "A" grade this extra information may be accepted, otherwise it would be rejected. This is called Ziyadāt ath-Thiqah (extra information from a trustworthy narrator). Meanwhile, if after cross reference it was found that a scholar's paraphrase of a hadīth had made its sense wider, it was rejected.

Publishing the Books

The appearance of several editions of the same book with minor alterations, deletion and additions is a common phenomenon in modern times. Similar was the situation in the era of the early scholars various editions of their work contained variations. Let us take the work of Bukhārī on the biographies of Muḥaddathīn: Al-Tārikh al-Kabīr which has about 20,000 entries of names with some information about each. The first version was copied by Al-Faḍl b. 'Abbās al-Ṣā'igh. The second version was transmitted by Muḥammad b. Sulaimān b. Faris al-Dallal (d.312). The third and perhaps final version, was transmitted by Muḥammad b. Sahl al-Muqri'. These three versions naturally differ at a few places but the difference is not signifi-

^{10.} See above Chapter III.

cant. Sometimes a student read these different versions to the author. For example Muḥammad b. Ahmad al-Lu'Lu'ī put a note after hadīth No. 911 in sunan Abū Dāwūd that the author did not read this hadīth in the fourth reading, even though he recorded it.¹¹ 'Alī b. Ḥasan b. al-'Abd says that he learned Abu Dāwud's sunan from him six times. But the sixth time he was not able to complete it. Thus students read in different ways and recorded accordingly. As a result there were differences in versions of the same book. It was easy to recognize when this difference was due to a different student who transmitted the work. But when there was a single transmitter from the author and different students of this rāwī or transmitter differed among themselves here and there, putting a heading or discarding it, or mentioning a hadīth or eluding it, why and how did it happen?

In the case of Lu'lu'ī we have seen how he explicitly admitted that the author did not read $had\bar{\imath}th$ No. 911 in the fourth reading, yet he put it into the book and transmitted it. He thought that the authors earlier permission to transmit this $had\bar{\imath}th$ entitled him to do this though the author did not retain it in the later version. Therefore, when a student had a version of a book different from the author's, and he had permission to publish it, then the new version of the book does not cancel the early permission. Therefore this transmitter or $R\bar{a}w\bar{\imath}$, transmitted a different version of the book to different students causing some variation in this way.

Sometimes mistakes in copying, a word or sentence dropped or a word erroneously used caused this difference. Anyone who has experience of compiling books knows how even after every care some mistakes remain.

Some other problems concerning the methods of early scholars of the problems of authorship and the 'get up' of the books, have been discussed in my work on early hadīth literature.¹²

Now I shall give brief descriptions of some important authors and their books in hadith literature.

^{11.} Abū Dāwūd Sunan 1, 331.

^{12.} Studies in Early Hadith literature, pp. 200-207.

2. Imām Mālik b. Anas

Mālik b. Anas b. Mālik b. Abu 'Amīr Al-Asbahī. He was probably born in 93 A.H. at Madina though dates ranging all the way from 91 to 97 A.H. have also been given. His grandfather Malik was a Successor and his great grandfather was a Companion of the Prophet. Originally his family belonged to Yeman, and in the time of the Prophet they settled in Madina. His family consisted of his wife Fāṭima and three chilldren: Yaḥyā, Muḥammad and Ḥammād.

It seems that his father carefully looked after his son, and used to revise his lessons with him. Once Malik made a mistake in answer to his father's question, upon which his father told him that this must be owing to the time he spent playing with pigeons. That was a good lesson for Mālik and henceforth he concentrated his full attention on his studies.

He did not travel abroad for learning $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ yet had very good opportunity to learn from the famous scholars of the world as most of them visited Madina. The number of his students exceeds a thousand and several books have been written on the subject.

His relations with the political authorities were amicable, though he did not do them any favors. When asked about his relations with the Caliphs and Governors, he replied that they are in need of sincere advice. It is the duty of every learned person to meet them and direct them towards good and forbid them from doing evil.

His Modesty and Far-Sightedness

The Caliph Abū Ja'far asked Mālik to write a book which may be promulgated as the law of the state all over the Islamic world, and it would be used to judge and govern, and anyone who differed from it would be prosecuted. Imām Malik disagreed with this and said that the Companions of the Prophet were scattered all over the Muslim World, especially in the time of the Caliph 'Umar who used to send them as teachers. The people learned from the Companions, and every generation learned from the previous ones. In many cases there is more than one choice in practicing Islam. One of the aspects of Islam has been emphasized by some scholars, while

others took other aspects. As a result there has been a variety of methods and most are of equal status. Therefore, if one tries, to change them from what they know to what they do not know they will think it is a heresy. Hence it is better to leave every city with whatever knowledge it has of Islam. Abū Ja'far appreciated this farsightedness. Even when the Caliph wanted that Mālik should read this book to the Princess, the scholar replied. "Knowledge does not go to people but people come to it." When the Caliph requested that other students should not join the class with the Princess, he refused this favor saying they would sit where they found an empty place.

He was physically beaten by order of the Governor of Madina Ja'far b. Sulaimān because one of his *fatwās* (legal decision) was regarded as a move against the authorities. He died in 179 A.H.

His Works

The following works have been attributed to him:

Risālah ilā Ibn Wahb fil Qadr.

Kitāb an-Nujūm.

Risālatun fil Aqdīya.

Tafsīr Li Ghrīb al-Qur'ān.

Risālah ilā Al-Laith b. Sa'd.

Risālah ilā Abū Ghassān

Kitāb al-Sīyar

Kitāb al-Manāsik.

Kitāb al-Muwaţţa'

The fate of most of these books is unknown. However, Mālik is famous for his school of thought, his personal character, his scholarship and his book Muwatta'.

Plan and Purpose of Muwatta'

It records aḥādīth of the Prophet and the legal decisions of early scholars of Madina. A famous lawyer 'Abdul 'Azīz b. 'Abdullah al-Majshūn (d.164) compiled a book containing the legal decisions only. Mālik criticised his work and said that if he had compiled the works he would have begun with the athār and then followed them with legal decisions. Later on Malik produced his work on this pattern. Muwaṭṭa' is not purely a hadīth book. It contains the aḥādīth of the Prophet, legal opinions of the Companions and the Successors and of some later authorities.

^{13.} Rāzī, Int. 29.

Imam Malik b. Anas 83

He refers very frequently to the unanimous opinions of the scholars of Madina on subjects where there is no hadīth from the Prophet, or even in understanding the hadīth of the Prophet and its application.

Quantity of the Material

It seems that he collected a huge amount of material and selected a few thousand aḥādīth out of it. Whatever Mālik learned in perhaps forty years is available in Muwaṭṭà. He steadily revised this work and as a result reduced the material in it. Therefore, it has more than eighty version. Fifteen of them are more famous and now only one version of Yaḥya b. Yaḥya is available in its original form, complete and printed. This version contains:

Aḥādīth from the Prophet

'Athar from the Companions

'Athar from the later authorities

A vast literature has been produced on this book, and in this context perhaps it stands next to the Ṣaḥīḥ of Bukhārī.

Commentaries on Muwatta':

The most famous commentaries are by: Ibn 'Abdul Barr who compiled two commentaries. At-Tamhīd and Al-Istidhkār

Al-Bājī, Sulaimān b. Khalaf (d.474) compiled two commentaries: Al-Istīfā' and Al-Muntaqā, (mostly an abridgment of the above). Seven volumes.

Az-Zurqānī, Muḥammad b. 'Abdul Bāqī (d. 1122) four volumes printed several times.

Al-Kandhalāwī, Muḥammad Zakarīyā (1315-) wrote Aujaz-al-Masalik Sharḥ Muwaṭṭā of Imām Mālik, which has been published more than once in India and Egypt.

3. Ahmad b. Muhammad b. Hanbal

Abu 'Abdullah Ahmad b. Muhammad b. Hanbal.

His father Muḥammad was a *Mujāhid* who lived in Baṣra. He went to Marw as a *Ghāzī*, where Aḥmad was born in 20th of Rabī' al-Awwal 164 A.H. Later on, while Aḥmad was still an infant, he was brought to Baghdad. His father died at the age of 30. His mother was Ṣafiyah bint Maimuna bint 'Abdul Malik ash-Shaibānī.

Personal Features

He used to dye his hair, and was a tall, dark brown man. ¹⁴ He began to study $Ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$ in 179 A.H. when he was 16 years old and memorized a million $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$ in his lifetime. He is one of the leading personalities in Islamic history who combined knowledge of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$ and law. He was sublime in his God-consciousness and in defending Islam. He challenged the Caliph and his religious authority, was imprisoned for a long time and was treated very harshly by the authorities. But he never surrendered. There are books written on his inquisition.

Ibn Ḥanbal and Miḥna

The Mutazilites—so-called free thinkers in Islam—had great impact on the Caliphs Mā'mūn, al-Mu'taṣim and al-Wāthiq who accepted the Mutazilite viewpoint, accepted it as their creed and made it the duty of the state to force it on all Muslims. Ibn Ḥanbal and other muḥaddithīn refused to profess it. Ibn Ḥanbal was brought before the inquisition from Baghdad to Ṭarsūs in heavy chains.

Under Mu'tasim he patiently suffered corporal punishment and imprisonment. The Caliph Mu'tasim requested Ibn Ḥanbal again and again to accept the creed of the Mu'tazilites in which case the Caliph himself would free him of all the chains and follow his steps. After flat refusal Ibn Ḥanbal was trampled under the feet of Mu'taṣim's servants and some of his joints were dislocated. Later a large group of executioners were brought

^{14.} Ahmad Shākir, Intro. to Musnad, 60.

and each of them whipped Ahmad two stripes with all his strength. After a while Ahmad lost his consciousness. When he regained consciousness he was offered some drink but refused it saying that he did not want to break his fast. However, this is not the proper place to discuss the suffering of Ibn Hanbal for the sake of Islam. A doctoral thesis has been written by Patton on the inquisition of Imam Ahmad. The most interesting thing in the character of Imam Ahmad is that when the Government's policy was changed in the caliphate of Mutawakkil, in favour of the Muhaddithins' doctrine, and he was approached to take revenge from those who caused his inquisition, he refused it totally. Imam Ahmad says that he was going through the meaning of a verse of the Qur'an (Sūrah Shūrā 40). He found that a great scholar of the first century, Hasan al Basrī (21-110) explained its meaning saying that in the Hereafter all the nations of the world would be kneeling down in front of Allah. Then it would be proclaimed that those people should stand whose reward is due from Allah, upon which no one would stand except those who pardoned the wrongdoers in this world. Reading this passage Ibn Hanbal pardoned his wrongdoers and used to say what does a man lose, if Allah does not punish some one for his sake.

He refused any favor from the Government. Later on, without his knowledge and against his intention some pensions were offered to his sons and cousins. When he came to know of this he almost cut himself off from them. In the early days he used to borrow some things from their houses, but later he refused to have even his medicine and meals to be prepared on their stoves.

His Works

He compiled many works, some of which have been published and some of them have been lost, and some of them still need editing and publishing. Here is a list of some of his works:

Al-ʻIlal wa Maʻrifat ar-Rijāl Tārikh An-Nāsikh wal-Mansukh At-Tafsīr

Al-Mānasikh

Al-Ashribah Az-Zuhd

Ar radd 'Ala az-Zanādiga wa al-Jahmīya

Al-Musnad

Of all of his works, he is most famous for Musnad.

Nature of Musnad Works

Musnad works are not compiled in accordance with issues in Law. The only criteria is to collect ahādāth of a certain companion in one place. However, the compilers differ in arrangements of the names of the companions. Some of them begin with the four righteous Caliphs Abu Bakr, 'Umar, 'Uthmān and 'Alī, followed by the remaining six of them who had tidings of Paradise from the Prophet. These are followed by the Companions who embraced Islam first, and so on. Some of the books are arranged alphabetically and some according to regions. However, the Musnad is not easy to use because there is no subject by subject arrangement of material at all. Thus it is very difficult to find a particular hadāth.

Musnad was published in six volumes in 1313 A.H. A number of books have been compiled on the Musnad of Imam Ahmad. In this century two scholars contributed the best part of their lives in the service of this book. One was Shaikh Ahmad 'Abdur Rahman as-Sa'atī father of Imam Hasan al-Bannā, founder of the famous Society of Muslim Brothers, who arranged the original work according to chapters on legal matters. It has a good commentary and references to relative ahādīth in other works. The book has been published in 24 volumes and is one of the best works on Musnad. The other scholar was Ahmad Shākir who intended to publish a critical edition of the work in its original form. He published about a quarter of the original work in 15 volumes before he died. However, up till now its ahādīth have not been counted. Scholars estimate that there are between 30,000-40,000 aḥādīth. This is perhaps the biggest book on ḥadīth at the present in our hands, or it might be the second biggest work. There have been many other works on hadith much larger than Musnad of Imam Ahmad but these are no longer extant. However, over 80 Musnads have been mentioned by Kattanī in his book ar-Risālah al-Mustatrafah (p. 74), some of them very voluminous. Ya'qūb b. Shaiba made a plan to compile a musnad work. If he had been able to complete it this huge project would have exceeded 200 volumes. A tiny part of this grand book was discovered and has been published. A partial list of Musnads is given below:

Musnads by (1) 'Abd b. Ḥumaid (2) Abū Ishāq (3) Abū Ya'lā (d.307) (4) Al-Bazzār (d.292) (5) Ḥasan b. Sufyān (6) Ḥumaidī d.2) (7) Ishāq b. Rāhwaih (8) Tayālisī (9) Ūsāma b.Ḥārith (10) Ya'qūb, b. Shaibah (d.262)

4. Imam Bukhārī

Abū 'Abdullah Muḥammad b. Ismā'il b. Ibrāhīm b. al-Mughira al-Ja'faī was born on Friday 13th Shawwāl 194 A.H. at Bukhārā. His father Ismā'īl was a scholar of hadīth, who studied the subject under some very famous scholars such as Mālik b. Anas, Ḥammād b. Zaid and Ibn al-Mubārak. While Bukhārī was quite young his father died. Bukhārī inherited a good fortune from his father. He entrusted it to someone for partnership. One of the clients owed him 25,000 dirhams and did not intend to pay it. It was suggested that Bukhārī should take the case to the Governor so as to obtain the amount, but he refused to take any help from the Governor, thinking that the Governor might later ask him for favors. Bukhārī had an affectionate mother and an older brother named Aḥmad.

Bukhārī began the study of $\dot{H}ad\bar{\imath}th$ while he was quite young, even less than ten years of age. By the age of sixteen, he had memorized many books of prominent early scholars such as Ibn al-Mubārak, Wakī' etc. He did not content himself with memorizing $ah\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}th$ and books of early scholars, but also learned the biography of all the narrators who took part in transmission of any $had\bar{\imath}th$, their date of birth, death, place of birth and so on.

He stayed in Hijaz for six years to learn $had \bar{\epsilon} th$. He journeyed to Baghdad eight times. In one of his journeys to 'Adam b. Abū Ayās his money was finished. Penniless, he lived for a time on the leaves of wild plants. He was an excellent marksman and used to go outside for practice that he may be ready for $Jih\bar{a}d$ all the time.

In criticizing the early scholars to evaluate them he used very moderate and mild language but scholars know very well what those soft words of Bukhārī meant. He was very generous to his students. His scribe Muhammad b. Abū Ḥātim says: "Bukhārī used to wake up in the night dozens of times, lit the lamp by flint, made some marks on certain hadīth and then slept. I asked him: "Why did you not call me and you suffer all these things alone." He replied: "You are young and I did not wish to disturb your sleep".

When Bukhārī arrived in Baghdād, scholars gathered to examine his famous memory. They appointed ten men, everyone of them to read ten

 $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$. All of them changed the $isn\bar{a}d$ and put it with different matn. One by one they began to read $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ asking him whether he knew it. He constantly replied, "Not known to me". Those who knew that it was an actual examination of Bukhārī said that he understood the case, while the general impression was that Bukhārī's knowledge was very meagre and his memory was very bad. After the questions ended, he systematically explained to them which $isn\bar{a}d$ belonged to which $had\bar{\imath}th$.

In his last days he faced some hardship and was ordered by the governor to leave the country. I do not know whether it was the curse or blessing of Bukhārī that the name of the governor has become part of history whereas hundreds of kings have been forgotten.

Bukhārī died on Saturday, night of 'īd in 256 A.H.

His Works

Bukhārī compiled many works, some of them perished while others are in our hands.

- Qaḍāyā as-Ṣahabah wat-Tābi'īns
 He compiled it when he was eighteen, and at present no information is available about it.
- 2. Raf'al-Yadain
- 3. Qirā'at khalf al-Imām
- 4. Khalq Af'āl Al-'Ibād
- 5. at-Tafsīr al-Kabīr
- 6. Al-Musnad al-Kabīr
- 7. Tārīkh Ṣaghīr
- 8. Tārīkh Awsaț
- 9. Tārīkh Kabīr (8 vols.)
- 10. al-Adab al-Mufrad
- 11. Birr al-wālidain
- 12. Ad-du'afā'
- 13. Al-Jāmi' al-Kabīr
- 14. Al-Ashriba
- 15. Al-Hibah
- 16. Asāmī as-Saḥāba
- 17. Al-Wuhdan
- 18. Al-Mabsut

Imam Bukhari 89

- 19. Al-'Ilal'
- 20. Al-Kunā
- 21. Al-Fawā'id
- 22. Şahih of Bukhārī.

Books No. 2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 10, 12 and 20 have been published, some of them several times. However, his most famous work is Ṣaḥīḥ of Bukhārī. Its full title is Al-Jāmi' al-musnad Aṣ-ṣaḥīḥ al-Mukhtaṣar min umūr Rasulillāhi wa sunanihi wa Ayyāmihi, which means: An epitome containing all types of authentic musnad aḥādīth concerning the Prophet, his sunna and his wars. He spent sixteen years in its compilation. It seems that he made the framework for his book while he was in Makka in the Masjid al-Ḥarām. He worked on it continuously and the final draft was made in the Masjid of the Prophet.

For every hadīth he selected to put in his Ṣaḥīḥ, Bukhārī used to take a bath and pray two rák'ah nafl and made istikhāra. Later on, if he was satisfied he put the hadīth in his book.

Number of Ahadith in Sahih of Bukhari

Bukhārī habitually took a portion of the hadith for the heading of the chapter. Also he repeated $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ time after time according to their legal deductions. The number of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ in his book is 9,082 but without repetition it goes down to 2,602. This number does not include $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ mauq $\bar{u}fah$ and sayings of successors.

His Methods of Revision

Usually authors make changes in their works and bring out new editions improving on the earlier one. So did al-Bukhari. He stated that he composed his work thrice. We know for sure that his $T\bar{a}rikh\ Kab\bar{i}r$ was published three times and every edition differs a little and the last one was the most accurate. He did the same with his $Sah\bar{i}h$. Even after this final draft he continually made changes in it, adding and discarding, sometimes putting new headings, even without filling in the material required for them.

His Conditions for Acceptance of Hadith for his Saḥiḥ

He laid down the most strict conditions.

The narrator must be of a very high grade of personal character, of a very high grade of literary and academic standard.

There must be positive information about narrators that they met one another and the student learned from his Shaikh.

It is as difficult to obtain complete data about every scholar. In fact we do not have complete information about any scholar's list of students. There was a difference of opinion relating to this matter between Bukhārī and Muslim. In Muslim's opinion if two scholars lived together where it was possible for them to learn from each other, then, even if we have no positive information about their meetings, we should accept their aḥādīth, regarding their isnād unbroken provided that they were not practicing Tadlīs. Bukhārī did not agree with this position. He insisted on positive evidence of learning and teaching. He did not consider even this condition sufficient and required further scrutiny in selecting authorities.

Criteria in Selecting the Material

Most of the authors of six principal books of hadith did not describe their criteria in selecting the material, except for a sentence here and there, but it is possible to arrive at some conclusions from their writings. Two scholars of the sixth century, Hāzimī and Maqdisī studied the subject. They studied the qualities of narrators whose aḥādīth have been recorded in those books and tried to find out a general rule. Hāzimī says that those scholars had certain criteria in accepting a narrator whose hadith they were going to record in their books. For example one who wishes to record only authentic aḥādīth must be careful of the narrator and his teacher and their positions. Sometimes a certain narrator is a very good and accurate narrator from one teacher (shaikh) while he committed mistakes in narrating from another one. It means that in the first case his aḥādīth would be accepted while in the second case it would be rejected. If we take the comparable example of students, it seems that certain students obtain good results when they study the subject under certain professors. But the same students get poor marks either in another subject or in the same subject if they study under certain other professors. Meanwhile there are students who get 'A' in every subject whoever their teacher might be. This fact was observed by early scholars. To explain it more simply Hāzimī takes the example of Zuhrī who had a great many students. Hazīmī divided them in five categories:

1. Narrators from Zuhrī who possessed the high quality of *itqān*' accuracy, *Ḥifz*, (excellent memory) and a lengthy companionship with Zuhrī, accompanying him even in his journeys.

Imam Bukhari 91

2. The second group was 'adl like the first group but they did not spend sufficient time with Zuhrī to be able to remember his hadīth thoroughly and with accuracy, and thus were placed a little below group 1.

- 3. Those who lived long with Zuhrī like the first group but have been criticized by the scholars.
- 4. Those who have been criticized by the scholars and meanwhile did not spend much time in the lectures of Zuhri.
- 5. Those who are held as weak narrators, or not known to early scholars.

In his $\S ah\bar{\imath}h$, Imām Bukhārī mostly recorded the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ narrated by the first group, but sometimes recorded the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ of the second group as well.

Imām Muslim sometimes recorded the $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ of the famous scholars of the third group as well. However, Nasa'ī and Abū Dāwūd quote frequently from the first, second and third groups. Abū Dāwūd sometimes mentions $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ of the fourth group as well. Tirmidhī records $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ of the first, second, third and the fourth group, but he describes the weak narrators, a method not generally applied by Nasa'ī or Abu Dāwud.

However, it is obvious that not all the scholars were famous like Zuhrī, nor did all of them have so many students. Therefore, the rule which I have mentioned now regarding the group of the students of a certain scholar is applicable only to famous scholars who had many students.

In case of a scholar who had a few students, Bukhārī and Muslim accepted the material on the basis of trustworthiness and accuracy. Therebefore, they sometimes recorded a $had\bar{\imath}th$ even if the narrator had no other fellow who transmitted the same $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$, as they were sure about the accuracy of that narrator due to their examination in other matters, but in most of the cases they recorded the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ of trustworthy persons which was attested to by other students' witness. 15

Translation of Şaḥiḥ

The book has been translated into many languages, completely or partially.

Exegeses of Sahih:

Hundreds of exegeses have been written on the book, some of them exceeding 25 volumes.

^{15.} Ibn Hajar, Hady as-Sāri, I, 6.

The best ones are:

Fathul Bārī by Ibn Ḥajar (d.852) is the best one available.

'Umdatul Qārī by 'Ainī (d.855).

Irshād as-Sāīr by Qastallānī (d.923)

Criticism of Bukhari

Many scholars criticized Bukhārī's work. The criticism concerns ābout 80 narrators and some $110 \ ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$. The criticism showed that though these $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ were not mistaken or false they did not measure up to the high standard which was set by Bukhārī.

A comparable example would be that of some colleges which do not accept any student less than 'A' grade, but after scrutinizing it may be found that they accepted in the mass of the students a few students of lower grade, say of grade 'C'. This criticism implies that the highest grade was given to Bukhārī after very severe test. But it seems that in accepting the narrations of those low grade scholars he had some other evidence which satisfied him about the correctness of the ahādīth he accepted.

Trimidhī, speaking about Ibn Abi Laila says:

قال احمد: لا یحتج بحدیث ابن أبی لیلی، وقال محمد بن اسماعیل: ابن أبی لیلی هو صدوق ولا أروى عنه لا یدری صحیح حدیث من سقیمه وکل کان مثل هذا فلا أروى عنه شیئا،

"Muḥammad b. Ismā'īl (al-Bukhārī) said: "Ibn Abī Lailā is truthful but I do not transmit any hadīth through him, as it is not known which of his ahādīth are correct, which erroneous. And anyone who was of this kind I do not relate hadīth through him". It means that even a scholar of this grade was not acceptable to Bukhārī, except if he finds some means to differentiate among his ahādīth. For example if he had old copies or original of the teachers of Ibn Abī Lailā, and which was later transmitted by him Bukhārī would accept those ahādīth, because he would be sure that Ibn Abī Lailā did not commit a mistake in transmission of these ahādīth.

May Allah reward all of them as well as us.

Other Books called Sahih

Beside Bukhārī, there are several books called Sahīh such as: Sahīh of Ibn Khazaima

^{16.} Suyutī, Tadrīb, I, 134; Ibn Ḥajar, Hady as-Sārī, II, 106.

^{17.} Tirmidhī, Sunan, II, 199.

Imam Bukhari 93

Ṣaḥīḥ of Ibn Ḥibbān Ṣaḥīḥ of Ibn as-Sakan (d. 353)

Ṣaḥīḥ of ash-Sharqī, a student of Imām Muslim, died in 325 A.H. But the most famous one after Bukhārī is Ṣaḥīḥ of Imām Muslim which deserves some detailed study.

5. Abul Ḥusain Muslim b. al-Ḥajjāj al-Nisāpuri

He was born in 204 A.H. Unfortunately, available sources do not give us information regarding his ancestors, family and his early child-hood. No doubt, he must have studied the Qur'an, Arabic literature and grammar, before beginning the study of hadith as it was the pattern of that period. However, he began the study of hadith in 218 A.H. at the age of about 15 years.

As riḥla (journey) for the study of ḥadīth was an essential element, Imām Muslim visited almost all the centres of learning many times. Perhaps his first journey was to Makka for Hajj in 220 and in this journey learned from Qa'nabi and others, then he returned to his homeland in short time. It seems that his real rihla began about 230 A.H. He journeyed to Iraq, Ḥijāz, Syria and Egypt. The last time he went to Baghdad was in 259 A.H.

His Teachers

The biographical works have mentioned a good deal of his teachers' names. We may mention a few of them, such as Zuhair b. Ḥarb, Sa'īd b. Manṣūr, 'Abd b. Humaid, Dhuhalī, Al-Bukhārī, Ibn Ma'īn, Ibn Abī Shaiba etc. However, their numbers are in hundreds.

His Students

The number of his students is very large. Hundreds of people read his books to him. We may mention a few of them, such as Tirmidhī, Ibn Abū Hātim Rāzi, Ibn Khuzaimah etc.

His Generosity

He was a merchant of good fortune and of best reputation. Dhahabi called him محسن نبسيا بور. 18

^{18.} Dhahabī, 'Ibar, II, 231.

Muslim and Bukhari

Muslim benefitted from Ṣaḥīḥ of Bukhārī and later compiled his own work, and was was influenced by Bukhārī's method. When Bukhārī came to Nisāpur, Muslim attended to him and used to visit him. Ahmad b. 'Abduh describes one of the meetings of Muslim and Bukhārī, saying: Muslim came to Bukhārī and kissed him on his forehead, and said, "Let me kiss your feet, O Master of muḥaddithīn and Doctor of Hadīth."

There was a difference of opinion in theological questions between Bukhārī and Dhuhalī, upon which Dhuhalī asked his students not to attend the lectures of Bukhārī and most of them obeyed. Later Dhuhalī was informed that Muslim still visited Bukhārī. Dhuhalī declared anyone who followed Bukhārī's opinion should stay away from his lecture. Though he did not mention Muslim explicitly, yet Muslim understood it, and went to the house, and sent back with a porter all the books which he had written earlier from the lectures of Dhuhalī.

His Works

He compiled many books such as:

- 1. Al-Asmā'wa al-Kunā.
- 2. Ifrād ash-Shāmiyīn
- 3. Al-Aqrān.
- 4. Al-Intifā' bi Julūd as Sibā'.
- 5. Aulād as-Ṣaḥābah.
- 6. Awhām al-Muḥaddithīn.
- 7. Al-Tārikh
- 8. At-Tamyīz
- 9. Al-Jāmi'
- 10. Hadith 'Amr b. Shu'aib
- 11. Rijāl 'Urwah
- 12. Sawālātuh Ahmad b. Hanbal
- 13. Tabagāt
- 14. Al-Ilal
- 15. Al-Mukhadramin
- 16. Al-Musnad al-Kabīr
- 17. Mashā'ikh ath-Thaurī
- 18. Mushā'ikh Shu'bah
- 19. Masha'ikh Mālik
- 20. Al-wuhdan
- 21. As-Sahīh al-Masnad

According to the report of Ibrāhīm b. Muhammad b. Sufyān, Imām Muslim compiled three books of Musnadāt:

- 1. Which he read to the people that is Sahih.
- 2. Which contain aḥādīth of even some weak narrators.
- 3. Which contain even the weak narrators.19

Numbers 8, 20 and 21 have been published.

Numbers 1, 11, 13 are still in manuscripts in different libraries.

However, his most important work is Ṣaḥīḥ, which is the short form of the title. The original title is as following: al-Musnad as-Ṣaḥīḥ, al-Mukhtaṣar min as-Sunnan, bi naql al-'adl'an al-a'dl 'an Rasul Allah. 20

Nature of This Work

He did not pay any attention to legal extraction. He did not even mention the chapters which were added later.

Utmost attention was paid for mutāba'āt and shawāhid.

This book comes next to the $\S a \hbar i \hbar$ of Bukhārī and a vast literature has been produced around this book. It seems that Muslim presented his book $\S a \hbar i \hbar$ to Abū Zur'ah, one of the greatest critics of $a \hbar \bar{a} d \bar{i} t h$, and wherever Abū Zur'ah pointed out any defect in any $\hbar a d \bar{i} t h$, Muslim omitted it without argumentation. Because he did not want to record $\S a \hbar i \hbar a \hbar \bar{a} d \bar{i} t h$ according to his own criteria alone, he recorded only those whose authenticity was accepted among scholars. This is clear from his own statements in the $\S a \hbar i \hbar$ that he recorded only what was unanimously accepted as authentic.²¹

Number of Aḥādīth in Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim

According to the numbering of Muḥammad Fuwād 'Abdul Bāqī of Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim, it contains 3033 aḥādīth. His method of numbering is not based on isnād system. He based his counting on subjects. We know $Muḥaddith\bar{i}n$ usually count by $isn\bar{a}d$. Therefore, if we apply their method, the number would increase perhaps to double.

Exegeses or Commentaries

There are many commentaries on this book. The most popular and widely used one is that of Imām an-Nawawī, (d.676) called Al-Minhāj fī Sharh Ṣaḥīḥ Muslim b. Al-Ḥajjāj. This commentary has been published several times.

^{19.} Ibn Khair, Fihrist 102.

^{20.} Ibn Khair, Ibid., 98.

^{21.} MU. Salāt 63.

6. Abū 'Abdur Raḥmān Aḥmad b. Shu'aib b. 'Alī b. Sinān b. Bahr al-Khurāsāni an-Anasa'ī.

He was born in 215 A.H. He took extensive journey to learn aḥādīth of the Prophet. He started travelling for this purpose when he was 15 years old. He learnt aḥādīth in Khurasan, Iraq, Arabia, Syria, Egypt and al-Jazīra etc. He was a great scholar and critic. Some of the later scholars even esteemed him higher than Imām Muslim in his knowledge of aḥādīth. He went for jihād accompanying the Governor of Egypt. He was very brave, and in the military camp he used to try to guide the Governor and army to teach them sunna of the Prophet and asked them to follow it. Meanwhile, he did not attach himself to the company of the governor. He lived in Egypt for a long time. We know about his son 'Abdul Karīm, himself a muḥaddith, and a narrator of sunan mujtabā who died in Egypt in 344 A.H.²²

He was selective in his material, and did not use some very important material because of one of the narrators Ibn Lahī'ah was labeled as a weak narrator, because Ibn Lahī'ah's books were burnt he had to depend on other scholars' copies of the same work. But as these copies did not bear the name of Ibn Lahi'ah in reading certificate, therefore Ibn Lahi'ah was supposed not to transmit any hadīth from those books.

Nasa'ī was very accurate in his recording. There was some misunderstanding between him and his teacher Al-Hārith b. Miskīn. Therefore Nasa'ī did not participate in the circle of Al-Hārith but used to sit somewhere from where he could learn what was taught without being seen. When recording those aḥādīth Nasa'ī used to write: I heard this ḥadīth while it was read to al-Hārith bin Miskīn.

His Works

He compiled many works, some of which were: As-Sunan al Kubrā As-Sunan al-Mujtabā

^{22.} Ibn Khair, al-Firhrist, 117.

Kitab at-Tamyīz Kitab aḍ-ḍu'afā' Khaṣā'is 'Alī Musnad 'Alī Musnad Mālik Manāsik al-Ḥajj Tafsīr

It is quite possible that some of the above mentioned books may be the part of as-Sunnan al-kubrā.

Sunan of Nasa'i

However, his most famous work is As-Sunan al-Mujtabā, which is, as a matter of fact, selection from as-Sunan al-Kubrā with some editions. It is said that when he compiled his great book as-Sunan al Kubrā, presented it to the Governor of Ramlah, the Governor asked him whether or not all the $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ recorded into it are authentic, Nasa'ī replied in the negative. The Governor asked him to select only authentic ones, thus by this way $Mujtab\bar{a}$ was compiled. But Nasa'ī did not content himself even in this book with authentic $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ only. He recorded even weak $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ as well. Thus, it seems that the story of the Governor is of doubtful nature.

Actually it is a part of his methodology. He tries to record the different $isn\bar{a}ds$ of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$, then records the $isn\bar{a}d$ where some mistakes have been committed by narrators, then explains what is correct.²³ Thus he recorded the weak $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ as well, but mostly to show what defect they had.

It was assumed for a long time that as-Sunan al-Kubrā has been lost, but lately it has been discovered in Turkey and half of it is in Mau, my home town in India.

Commentaries on Sunan of Nasa'i

In this regard the book of Nasa'ī did not attract the attention of early scholars. Much later Suyuṭī wrote a short commentary on the book, titled: Zahrur Rabā 'Ala Al-Mujtabā, which has been published several times.

Nasa'ī died in 303 A.H. However, there is difference among scholars about the cause as well as the place of his death.

^{23.} Ibn Rajab, Sharh 'Ilal, 15 b.

7. Abū Dawūd Sulaimān b. al-Aash'ath Al-Azdi as-Sijistanī

He was born in 202 A.H. He must have studied the Qur'an, Arabic literature and some other subjects as it was the custom of the time before beginning the study of hadīth. He travelled extensively for the study of hadīth. It is reported that he journeyed to Khurasān, Rayy, Harāt, Kūfā, Baghdād, Tarsūs, Damascus, Egypt and Basra. We find him in Baghdād in 221 A.H. It means that he started his journey for the learning of aḥādīth while he was less than 20 years old. He spent 20 years in Tarsūs.

He gained a wide reputation in his lifetime. Baṣrā was deserted due to disturbance of Zanj in 257 A.H. The Governor Abū Ahmad visited Abū Dāwūd in his house in Baghdād and requested that he move to Basrā so that the deserted city may be rehabilitated by his presence and gathering of the scholars and students.

The scholars are unanimous about his great ability, trustworthiness, honesty and accuracy. He was not only a narrator of $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ and a good collector and compiler, but also a good lawyer and a very good critic. It is interesting to read that while criticizing the $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$, he sometimes checked the written material, papers, and ink to discover their age. He criticized his own son 'Abdullah, denouncing him as a liar.

His Family

He was married and had children. One of his teenaged sons used to go with him to study in the circle of hadith scholars.

Abu Dāwud died on Friday, 15th Shawwāl, 275 in Basra.

His Works

Al-Marāsīl Masā'il al-Imām Aḥmad An-Nāsikh wal-Mansūkh Risālah fī waṣf kitāb as sunan Az-Zuhd Ijābāt'an Sawalat Al-'Ājurrī As'ilah'an Ahmad b. Hanbal

Tasmiyat al-Akhwān

K.al-Qadr

Al-Ba'th wan-Nushūr

Al-Masā'il allati halafa 'alaihā al-Imām Ahmad

Dalā'il an-Nubūwāt

Fadā'il al-Ansār

Musnad Mālik

Ad-Du'ā'

Ibtidā' al-wahy

At-Tafarrud fis sunan

Akhbār al-Khawārij

A'lām an-Nubuwāt24

Sunan

Nature of Sunan Books

We have seen earlier the meaning of sunna, (plural sunan) but when the authors of hadīth books titled their books sunan, they meant that the book had been chapterized according to legal chapter such as Tahāra, ṣalāt, zahāt etc. related on the authority of the Prophet, and the opinions of the companions are usually not mentioned in it.

Therefore these sunan books do not contain the aḥādīth concerning morality, history, and zuhd etc.

Sunan of Abū Dawūd

It seems that he compiled his book Sunan while he stayed in Tarsus for twenty years. He selected some four thousand eight hundred $a\dot{h}\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}th$ from 500,000 for this purpose. He was contented with one or two $a\dot{h}\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}th$ only in every chapter. He wrote to the scholars of Makka explaining this:

I do not record more than one or two aḥādīth in every chapter though there were other authentic aḥādīth concerning the same chapter, as it would be too much as I meant one which could be used easily.²⁵

^{24.} Ibn Khair, Fihrist, 110. A'lām an-Nubūwāt may be the same as Dalā'il an-Nubūwāt.

Abū Dāwud, His letters to Meccans, p. 23.

He said that even 4 aḥādīth out of them are sufficient for a man in this life and the hereafter.

The book was very widely circulated in the author's life itself. 'Alī b. Hasan said that he learnt this book six times from Abū Dāwūd. The book is one of the best and more comprehensive than others on the subject of legal $ah\bar{a}d\bar{t}th$.

It ought to be remembered that not all the aḥādīth recorded by Abū Dāwūd in this book are authentic. Abu Dāwud himself pointed out many weak aḥādīth, and there are aḥādīth not mentioned by him as weak but the scholars counted them as weak. Why did Abu Dāwud record some weak ahādīth in his book Sunan?

In the opinion of Abu Dāwud a weak hadīth—if it were not very weak, just like some student had 50% of the mark—is better than the personal opinion of the scholars. Therefore he recorded them instead of the legal opinions of the early scholars.

Commentaries on Sunan of Abū Dawūd

Many commentaries have been written on the book, and the best one available is that Shamsul Haq 'Azīmābādī's, 'Awn al-Ma'būd Sharh Sunan Abi Dāwūd. An equally good commentary on Sunan is Badh al-Majhūd Fi Hall Abī Dāwūd by Khalīl Ahmad Ansārī (d.1346). Another very important work has been published under the title Tahdhīb Sunan Abī Dāwūd edited by Ahmad Shākir and others in 8 volumes in Cairo, 1367-69/1948-50. It contains the books of Mundhirī and Ibn al-Qayyim, both leading scholars of seventh and eight century of hijra. Lately a very valuable study of Abū Dāwūd and his works has been published by a famous scholar Muḥammad Sabbāg.

Many books on Sunan basis have been compiled. Here is a small list of those books. We will discuss some of them in detail.

Sunan of Abū Dāwud

Sunan of Tirmidhī

Sunan of Nasa'ī: Kubra and Mujataba

Sunan of Ibn Māja

Sunan of Ahmad b. 'Ubaid

Sunan of Ismā'īl al-Qādī

Sunan of Baihaqī

Sunan of Ibn Juraij

Sunan of Khallāl
Sunan of Dāraquṭnī
Sunan of Dārimī
Sunan of Sa'īd b. Manṣūr
Sunan of Sahl b. Abū Sahl
Sunan of Shāfi'ī
Sunan of Mūsā b. Ṭāriq

8. Muḥammad b. 'Isa b. Saura b. Mūsā b. al-Dahhak at-Tirmidhī

He was born in the year 209 A.H. He began *riḥla* for the study of *ḥadīth* most probably in 235 A.H. and returned to his home town Khurāsān before 250 A.H. He compiled his work after this date. He was very much influenced by Bukhārī, as in his book '*Ilal*' he explicitly states that he did not find one like Bukhārī in Iraq or Khurāsān.

Tirmidhī died on 13th Rajab 279 A.H.

His Works

Al-Jāmi' Al-Mukhtasar min as-Sunan 'an Rasulliah.

Tawārikh

al-Ilal

al-'Ilal al-Kabīr

Shamā' il

Asmā' as-Sahāba

Al-Asmā' wal-Kūnā

Āl-'Āthār al-Mauqūfa

His most famous work is Al-Jāmi' or as-Sunan at-Tirmidhī.

Aims of the Author

- a. To collect the aḥādīth of the Prophet systematically.
- b. To discuss the legal opinions of early Imāms regarding the subject. Therefore he mentioned only those $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ which were mentioned by the early scholars as the basis for their legal decisions. However, there are a few $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$, may be three or four, which are exempted from this rule.
- c. To discuss the quality of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ and if there was any 'illa, weakness or sickness, he would explain it. The book has been divided in 50 sub-books ($kit\bar{a}b$). It contains altogether 3956 $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$.

Nature of the Book al-Jāmi in Hadīth Collection

A book containing all kinds of aḥādīth, is called Jāmi', that is, it contains aḥādīth concerning Sīyar (International law) Adab (social behaviour) Tafsīr (exegesis of the Qur'ān), 'Aqīda (belief) Fitan, Ahkām (Laws of all kinds) Al-Ashrāṭ and Manāqib (Biographies of the Prophet and certain companions. As the Sunan of Tirmidhī contains all these chapters, therefore it is named, Jāmi' as well. This book was compiled on 10 Dhul-Hijja 270 A.H.

His Method in Arranging His Materials

Tirmidhī puts the heading, then mentions mostly one or two ahādīth from which the heading can be extracted. Afterwards he gives his opinions about the quality of hadīth, whether it is authentic or good or weak. For this purpose he uses a terminology not used by early scholars. He also mentions the opinions of early Jurists, Lawyers and Imāms concerning the subject. More than this, he also indicates if there were aḥādīth transmitted by the other Companions concerning the same subject, even if it has its connection in a wider range.

Commentaries on the Sunan of Tirmidhī

There have been many commentaries compiled on this work. The best one available at present is the work of 'Abdur Rahmān Mubārakpurī, titled: Tuhfat al-Aḥwadhī in 4 volumes and has been reprinted several times.

9. Abū 'Abdullah Muḥammad b. Yazīd ar-Rab'ī (Ibn Majah)

Known as Ibn Mājah al-Qazwīnī. He was born in 209 A.H.

It is not mentioned at what age he began the study of hadīth. 'Alī b. Muḥammad al-Tanāfasī (d.233) was the earliest of his teachers. It means that Ibn Mājah began the study of hadīth before 233 A.H. at about 15 or 20 as it was the custom of that period. He began his journey for the learning of hadīth after 230 A.H. He visited Khurasan, Iraq, Ḥijāz, Syria, Egypt etc. He died on Monday, 21 of Ramdān, 273 A.H. His son 'Abdullah has been mentioned as the one who put him in the grave, and was assisted by his two uncles. The scholars are unanimous on Ibn Majah's great scholarship and trustworthiness.

His Works

Tafsīr.

Al-Tārīkh, (biography of the narrator of aḥādīth)

Sunan

At present we have no information about his Tafsīr and Tārīkh. It seems that both of them have been lost for a long time. However, Sunan of Ibn Māja is very famous. Hundreds of libraries contain manuscripts of this work. This book has been published many times. In a later period it became one of the six famous books which are called 'the Six authentic books.' It does not mean that all the aḥādīth recorded in these six books are authentic, it means that majority of them are authentic, with exception of the Ṣaḥīḥ of Bukhārī and that of Muslim in which all are.

His Methodology for Selecting the Material

He did not mention his criteria for selecting the materials. Neither did he mention the aim he had in his mind in compiling this work. His book is of the lowest grade in the collection of the Six Principal works. His books contain 4341 aḥādīth, out of them 3002 have been recorded by au-

thors of the remaining five books, either by all or by one of them. There remain 1339 $a\dot{h}\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$ which have been recorded by Ibn Māja alone and not recorded by the other five. These may be put in the following gradings:

428 aḥādīth out of 1339 are authentic.

199 aḥādīth out of 1339 are good.

613 aḥādīth out of 1330 are of weak isnād.

99 aḥādīth out of 1339 are of munkar or makdhub.26

The other scholars, such as Abū Dāwūd and Tirmidhī also recorded weak ahādīth, but they mostly noted them in their book, but Ibn Maja, even when he recorded a false hadīth, went on silently. Therefore a lot of discussion has gone on among scholars about this book to the effect that some other books deserve to be mentioned in Six Principle works instead of that by Ibn Māja. Scholars like Ibn al-Athīr (d.606) Mughlatā'ī (d. 762), Ibn Hajar (d.852) and Questallānī (d.923), disliked putting this book with the other five books. As a matter of fact, to count it as one of the six principle works or to take it out of them would not affect the book by any way. Because, every hadīth recorded in these books is searched according to its own merit and not as a hadīth quoted from one of the six works.

How it Became One of the Six Books

There is nothing reported from the early scholars that there are or there ought to be six principle works. It came accidentally due to literary process. In the third and the fourth century hundreds of books were compiled. Some of them became more famous than others. Therefore scholars began to write books on the biographies of the narrators whose $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{t}th$ have been recorded in certain book, so that other scholars may easily judge the value of every $\hbar ad\bar{t}th$.

For example Ibn 'Adī (d.365), Dāraqutnī (d.385) al-Kalābādhī (d.398) and many other scholars compiled works on the narrators who have been mentioned by Bukhārī in his Ṣaḥīḥ. This is not only with Bukhārī but the same happened with other works such as books of Muslim, Abū Dāwūd etc.

In later periods, scholars began to combine two or more books, such as the combination of the materials of Bukhārī and Muslim by Humaidī, Saghānī etc. On the same pattern some scholars began to combine the two works written on the biographies of Bukhārī and Muslim.

^{26.} F-'Abdul Bāqi note on Sunan Ibn Māja, pp. 1519-20.

However, 'Abdul Ghanī b. 'Abdul Wāḥid al-Maqdisī (d. 600) compiled a work called Al-Kamāl in which he collected all the narrators who have been mentioned in any of the Six books, namely, Sahīh of Bukhārī, Sahīh of Muslim, Sunan of Nasa'i, Sunan of Abū Dāwūd, Sunan of Tirmidhī, and Sunan of Ibn Māja. This work became the base for many famous works on the dictionary of the narrators, such as Mizzī, Dhahabī, Ibn Kathīr, Mughlatā'ī, Khazrajī and Ibn Ḥajar etc.

Thus the reckoning of Ibn Maja as one of the six principal books is due to Maqdisī's work. Later on scholars began to mention these six works together. As their narrators were mentioned in a single book, these six books began to appear as a single unit. But to put any book in this single unit or to take it out does not add to, or detract from, the value of the book or material in it, because, as I have mentioned earlier, every single hadīth is tested according to its own merit and not by the prestige of its recorder.

Main Feature of Sunan of Ibn Maja.

The book has very little repetition, and it is one of the best in arrangement of chapters and sub-chapters, a fact which is recognized by many scholars. It is divided—in the edition of M. Fuwād 'Abdul Bāqī—in 37 chapters (kitāb) and contains 4341 aḥādīth.

Commentaries of Sunan of Ibn Maja

It has not been very lucky in attracting the attention of scholars. Very few commentaries have been written. The best one perhaps—is of Mughlatā'ī (d.762) titled: Al-I'lām bi Sunanihi 'Alaihis-Salām (incomplete) and not published yet.

10. Abul Qāsim Sulaimān b. Aḥmad b. Ayyūb al-Ṭabarānī al-Lakhamī

His family belonged to Yemeni tribe Lakhm who migrated to Quds and settled down there. His mother belonged to 'Akka. He was born in 'Akka in the month of Safar 260 A.H. It seems that his father was very fond of education, so he directed his son for the learning of hadīth in very early age. He began the study of hadīth in early age. Dhahabi mentioned that Tabarānī began to learn ahādīth in 273 A.H. in Ṭabarīya. It means that he was at that time about 13 years old. In 274 A.H. he went to Quds for the study. In 275 A.H. he was in Qaisariya for the same purpose. He made extensive journeys for this purpose and visited Syria, Egypt, Yeman, Arabian Peninsula, the Present Iran Afghanistan etc. He spent some 30 years in the learning of hadīth and the number of his teachers exceeds one thousand. He visited Asfahān for the sake of study in 290 A.H. After finishing his study in that city he went to other places, but he returned back to Asfahān and chose it as his home and lived there for more than half a century. Ṭabarānī died in 360 A.H.

It seems that the Governor of Asfahān Ibn Rustum fixed for him certain amounts and he used to receive it. He is one of those scholars who compiled very large number of books.

Here is an incomplete list of his works. Most of his books perished in early days. Sezgin mentions some 13 works under his name, even not all of them belong to Tabarānī. Thus about 10 of his works are known to us at present.

He has not been so lucky in attracting the attention of modern scholars. Only one of his books al-Mu'jam aṣ-Ṣaghīr has been published and that too is full of mistakes.

His Works

Musnad al-'Ashara Musnad ash-Shāmiyīn An-Nawādir Fawā'id. Musnad Abū Huraira Musnad 'A' isha. Tafsīr al-Qur'ān $Du'\bar{a}'$ Dalā'il an-Nubūwa. Ahādīth at-Tiwāl Hadīth Shu'ba Hadith A'mash Hadīth Auzā'ī Hadīth Shaibān Hadith Ayyūb. 'Ishrat an-Nisā' Musnad Abū Dharr Ar-Ru'vā' Al- $I\bar{u}d$. Fadl Ramadān Al-Farā'd Ar-Radd'alā al-Mu'tazila Aş-Şalāt 'ala ar-Rasul Aḥādīth Zuhrī from Anas Aḥādīth Ibn al-Munkadir from Jābir Hadīth man Kadhab. Akhbār 'Umar b. 'Abdul-'Azīz etc. Al-Mu'Jam as Şaghīr

But his most famous work is Al-Mu'jam al-Kabīr in 12 volumes.

This is the Encyclopaedia of hadīth which contains not only ahādīth of the Prophet but a great deal of historical information as well. This book has absorbed totally or partially hundreds of early works. The work ought to be published after critical edition. Several libraries contain different volumes of this work, but at present it is difficult to say that it would complete the work or not. The second work which was very dear to Tabārānī is his al-Mu'jam al-Awsat, in which he collected mostly rare information and knowledge concerning ahādīth, some of the authentic and other non-authentic.

Al-Hamdulillah it is complete in two huge volumes in Istanbul and needs editing and publishing.

The smallest one in this series is his al-Mu'jam as-Saghīr which has been published twice. The second edition is the worst one. In this book

he recorded one *hadīth* on the authority of each of his teachers. Thus the numbers of his teachers exceeds thousands.

He died in Aşfahān on 28th Dhīqa'da 360, at the age of one hundred years and ten months.

Nature of Mu'jam Work

It differs from one author to another one. Sometimes it is arranged according to alphabetical names of the Companions other times according to regions and some other times according to the alphabetical names of the teachers of compilers as has been done by Tabarani in his Mu'jam as-saghir.

Here is a list of some famous Mu'jams:

Muʻjam Şafar by Silafī
Muʻjam Şafar by Sammān
Muʻjam by Ismaʻīlī
Muʻjam by Ibn al-Aʻrabī
Muʻjam by Ibn Shāhīn
Muʻjam al-Kabīr by Dhahabi
Muʻjam Niswān by Ibn 'Asākir
Muʻjam Shuyukh by Ḥakim
Muʻjam Shuyukh by Dimyātī
Muʻjam Shuyukh by Ibn al-Muqrī

11. Abu as-Sa'ādāt al-Mubārak b. Muḥammad b. 'Abdul Karīm al-Jazarī (Ibn al-Athīr al-Jazarī)

He belongs to a famous literary family. They were three brothers. Mubārak b. Muḥammad, a Muḥaddith, 'Ali b. Muḥammed, a historian, author of al-Kāmil Fit-Tārikh, Naṣrullah b. Muḥammad, a man of literature, and author of many literary works. It is very surprising that all of them are known by the name of Ibn al-Athīr.

He was born in 554 A.H. in Jazīrah of Ibn 'Umar, a town north of Mausil. In 565 A.H. he came to Mausil and made it his permanent residence.

Ibn al-Athir was a very religious man, and a scholar of very high rank. He was the leading figure in Arabic language, exegesis of the Qur'an, Grammar, liguistics, hadīth and Fiqh (Islamic law).

He continuously held important advisory posts in government. Several governors and even the Government changed, but all of the rulers were in need of him. He was offered a ministerial post but refused it. His refusal caused some anger to the authorities, but he explained his stand and satisfied them.

His Works

He compiled many works in different fields of knowledge. Here is a list of few of them.

An-Nihāyah fī Gahrīb al-Ḥadīth. Ash-Shāfī fī sharh musnad ash-shāfi'ī Al-Inṣāf bainal-Kashf wa al-Kashshaf. Jāmi' al-Usūl Fī Aḥādīth ar-Rasūl

In later days he suffered from gout (joint pain) in his leg and was unable to stretch his leg or walk.

The King and ministers used to visit him asking for his experience and sincere advices. Later on a physician came from Maghrib and treated with some ointment. There was good improvement but Ibn Al-Athīr asked his brother to pay the physician and discharge him. The brother was astonished and asked him why he was taking such a decision while there

is a good improvement. He replied: Well, you are right, but now I am in comfort from the authorities. I dislike to go to their doors, and prefer to live in peace and comfort. When I was healthy I used to go to their doors, now they come to me in important matters. Therefore rest of the life I want to spend in freedom from those people. His brother followed his advice, and Ibn al-Athir was contented to live with the severe pain.

It is said that all his literary works are productions of his days of illness. He used to dictate to his students and by this way his books were compiled.

He died in 606 A.H. in Mausil.

Main Features of Iami al-Usūl

He collected all the ahādīth of the Prophet recorded in: Muwatta' of Imām Mālik, Ṣaḥīḥ of Bukhārī Ṣaḥīḥ of Muslim Jāmi' of Tirmidhī Sunan of Nasa'ī Sunan of Abū Dāwūd.

First of all he omitted all the asānīd. Afterwards he arranged the chapters according to alphabetic order. For example in Sunan work, first chapter begins with Tahāra (cleansing) but the letter T comes in the sixteen number. Thus his book began with Imān and Islam which are written in Arabic by the first letter A. When he records a hadīth he mentions that out of those six authors who recorded it in their books. He mostly keeps the wordings of Bukhārī and Muslim, and describes if there were variants in expression. Then he gives the meanings of the difficult words. However, when consulting this book and quoting from it, one should not refer to original works such as Bukhārī to give expression that this original work was consulted. In case one wants to be sure of exact words of the authority mentioned, one must go to the original work.

However, the book is very useful to scholars. It has been published more than once, and the best edition until now is the edition of 'Abdul Qādir al-Arnāwūt of Damascus.

12. 'Alī b. Abū Bakr b. Sulaimān al-Haithamī

He was born in Rajab 735 A.H. He studied the Qur'ān and after reaching the age of maturity, he joined the famous hadīth scholar of his time Zainuddīn al'Irāqī. He accompanied Zainuddīn in most of his journeys for Ḥajj or for learning of hadīth. Thus Zainuddīn was his teacher as well as his colleague, because both of them studied together under many famous scholars.

Zainuddīn gave al-Haithamī his daughter in marriage. Moreover, he taught Haithamī the science of hadīth. Under his buidance Haithamī learned the method of extracting $Zaw\bar{a}'id$, that is to select only those $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$ which are not mentioned by some particular scholars. Haithamī was a great expert on this subject. He compiled many works on $Z\bar{a}wa'id$, that is he collected only those $ah\bar{a}d\bar{a}th$ which were in the said book but were not found in the Six Principal books.

He compiled Zawā'id of Musnad Aḥmad on Six principal works and named it Ghāyatul Maqṣad Fi Zawā'id Ahmad, and Musnad of al-vazzār and named it Al-Baḥr az-zakhkhār Fī Zawā'id al-Bazzār, and that of Musnad of Abū Ya'lā, and that of al-Mu'jam al-Kabīr of Tabarānī and named it Al-Badir al-Munīr Fi Zawā'id al-Mu'jam al-Kabīr and that of al-Mu'jam aṣ-Ṣaghīr and al-Awṣat and named it Majma' al-Bahrain Fī Zawā'id al-Mu'jamaīn.

Besides these he compiled many other works on the same pattern. However, he collected all those above mentioned works in one single work named Majima' az-Zawā'id wa manba' al-Fawā'id. He dropped the isnād totally, arranged the book according to Jāmi' and Sunan pattern, explaining the grade of hadīth or mentioning names of narrators who were impugned, though his gradings were not always acceptable to later scholars. The book was published in 10 volumes by Qudsī in Cairo in 1352 A.H.

The author stripped aḥādīth from isnād for the sake of brevity, but it created a sort of defect in the work. However, it is a great Encyclopaedia of ḥadīth. Haithamī was praised very much by his contemporaries and later scholars. He died on 19th Ramadān 807 A.H.

13. Jalāluddīn 'Abdur Raḥmān b. Kamāluddīn As-Suyutī

He was born on 1st Rajab 849 A.H. His father died while he was only six years old. He was reared in the guardianship of Ash-Shihāb b. At-Ṭabbākh. However, he had very good opportunity for learning. In the list of his teachers we find almost all the famous scholars of his time and their number reaches up to 150 scholars.

The number of works compiled by him is about six hundred, some of them in a page or two while some others in many volumes. His main activity was to abridge the books of early scholars. By this he gained the enmity of many scholars who accused him of stealing the materials of early scholars.

He was Principal of many academic institutions. Due to certain conspiracies and jealousies he was relieved of the post. Later on, when the same post was offered to him he refused to accept it. He was very much respected and high ranking officials used to visit him.

His Works

As I mentioned earlier his works are in great numbers reaching up to 600. The one which concerns us here is his comprehensive collection of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{t}th$ of the Prophet.

We have seen earlier that Ibn al-Athīr and Haithamī collected aḥādīth from several books and arranged them into one book.

However Ibn Ḥajar (d.852) thought of collecting all the aḥādīth of the Prophet in a single book but he abandoned this idea. Later on his pupil Suyūtī thought on the same line and compiled the following works: Al-Jāmi' al-Kabir or Jam'ul-Jawāmi'

Suyūtī intended to collect all the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ of the Prophet in a single book.

He divided the work in two sections:

- a) Sayings of the Prophet.
- b) Actions of the Prophet.

Into the first section, he arranged alphabetically the sayings of the Prophet.

However in second section concerning actions, he arranged them according to the Companions separately. He omitted the *isnād* totally and referred to the authorities who endorsed the particular *hadīth* in his book.

He provided a lengthy list of the works on *ḥadīth*, whose material he had collected already. He mentioned the list so that in the event of his death any other scholar could continue the work.

However, he died without its completion. During this period, he made two small collections mostly from the material of his *Al-Jāmi'* al-Kabīr "the Grand Collection." These are:

- 1. Al-Jāmi' aṣ-Ṣaghīr which contains 10010 aḥādīth. There are the sayings of the Prophet arranged in alphabetical order without isnād. He completed this work on 907 A.H.
- 2. Ziyādāt 'ala al-jāmi' aṣ-Ṣaghīr.

After finishing al-Jāmi' as-Saghīr, he collected quite good quantity of material and arranged them in the pattern of Jāmi' Saghīr and made it the supplement. However Yusuf an-Nabahānī mixed the material of these books together in one unit on the pattern of Suyūtī and named it Al-Fatḥul Kabīr Fi Dammaz-Ziyādāt ila al-Jāmi' aṣ-Ṣaghīr. It was published in 3 volumes in Egypt in 1351/1932. As the original work was arranged in alphabetical order and not according to subject, therefore it was very difficult to use these books.

An Indian Scholar 'Alī b. Ḥisāmuddin (d.975 in Makka) known as Al-Muttaqī al-Hindī arranged all the material of these three books according to legal chapter and named it Kanzul 'Ummāl Fī Sunan al-Aqwāl wal-Af'āl. This is the greatest collection of aḥādīth in a single book. The book has been published twice in Hyderbad in India.

As the collection contains all sorts of ahadīth and Suyūtī's judgments on the authenticity of hadīth is not sound, therefore the book is not useful for general reading. However, there is a need for a comprehensive collection. I pray Allah to give me courage to fulfill this duty. Suyūtī died in 911 A.H. in Cairo.

14. Books on Subjects Related to Hadith

I have described only a few books out of many hundreds relating purely to hadith literature. However, there are many many topics and problems related to hadith and hadith literature and many books have been compiled on every related subject. Below I am going to give a list of some subjects on which books are found in hadith literature.

Let us begin first with the general conditions of teaching and learning.

- 1. There are books on the behaviour, etiquette and conditions which ought to be fulfilled by the teacher. One of the best books on the subject is Al-Jāmi' Li Akhlāq ar-Rāwī wa' ādab as-Sāmi' by Khaṭīb al-Baghdadi.
- 2. On the method to be applied by teachers in dictation, there is a good book called Adab al-Imlā' wa al-Istimlā' by Sam'ānī.
- 3. About students and journey for learning of aḥādīth, there is a book called ar-Riḥla by Khaṭīb.

However, there are many chapters in al-Jāmi' (mentioned under No. 1) concerning students.

- 4. As far as it concerns the question of writing down of aḥādīth, there is a good book by Khaṭīb Baghdādī called Taqyīd al-'Ilm. A comprehensive study of the subject has been carried out by the present writer, titled: Studies in Early Ḥadith Literature.
- 5. What method should be used for revision and corrections after writing down $ah\bar{a}d\bar{i}th$, one of the best books on the subject is $al\text{-}Ilm\bar{a}'$ by Qāḍī 'Ayāḍ.
- 6. To evaluate the certain certificates given to students by teachers, there are books on the subject such as Al-wajāza $F\bar{\imath}$ $Tajw\bar{\imath}z$ al- $Ij\bar{a}za$ by Mu'ammar $\bar{\imath}$.

I have described earlier, that $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ have been sorted out by different kinds. There are books containing only one sort of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$, such as:

Tabrīb II, 52.

- 7. Books containing Mutawātir aḥādīth²⁸ such as: Al-Azhār al-Mutanathira by Suyūtī.
- 8. Books containing aḥādīth Qudšī²⁹ such as: Al-Itḥāfāt as-Sanīya by Manāwī.
- 9. Books containing aḥādīth which had 'Illa, some hidden defect such as: Al'Ilal by Dāraquṭnī.
- 10. Some orders of the Prophet were abrogated by him in later period. There are books containing this sort of aḥādīth, such as Al-I'tibār Fi an-Nāsikh wa al-Mansūkh min al-'Āthar by Hāzimi.
- 11. Certain sayings of the Prophet had relation with certain occasion, to describe these occasions there are books such as: Asbāb warūd al-Aḥādīth by Husainī.
- 12. Sometimes one finds two aḥādīth seemingly contradictory, to clear their meanings and to reconcile them, there are books such as Ikhtilāf al-Ḥadīth by Shāfi'ī, and Tā'wīl Mukhtalaf al-Ḥadīth by Ibn. Qutaibah.
- 13. Every subject has its own dictionary. We find legal dictionaries, technical dictionaries etc. Likewise there are dictionaries relating to $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$. There are many dictionaries of this sort, one of them commonly used by Scholars is $Nih\bar{a}ya$ by Ibn al-Athīr in four volumes.
- 14. When it comes to commentaries, there are hundreds of books of commentaries on hadīth. Sezgin has referred to 56 commentaries on Ṣaḥīḥ of Bukhārī only. If we collect it with other books which deal with Ṣaḥīḥ of Bukhārī by one way or other, it would exceed one hundred.

Even pure hadīth literature has been divided in many subdivisions according to the methods applied by compilers in arranging the material. I have discussed earlier the books called (1) Musnad, (2), Ṣaḥīḥ, (3) Jami', (4) Sunan, (5) Mu'Jam, and (6) Zawā'id.

However, there are many other divisions such as Mustakhraj, Juz', Fawāid, Mashā'ikh. Mustakhraj, that is a later scholar chooses one of the early works like Ṣaḥīḥ of Bukhārī, and narrates the same ḥadīth in his book passing Bukhārī, joining isnād of Bukhārī in upper part mostly with the teacher of Bukhārī. There are many books written on this pattern by later scholars.

^{28.} For definition see above p. 43

^{29.} For definition see above p. 44

Juz'

This sort of book contains either a good collection of $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ on a single topic as Juz' al- $Qir\bar{a}'t$ by Bukhārī, or they collect narration of a single narrator in one book like Juz' of Ibn 'Arafa etc. It exceeds a few thousand.³⁰

Maudu'at

On spurious aḥādīth there are many books, for example by Ibn al-Jauzī Suyuṭī, Mulla 'Ali Qārī and Shaukānī. The work of Mullā 'Alī Qārī Mauḍū 'āt Kabīr and of Shaukānī, al-Fawā'id al-Majmu'a are very useful for general readers.

No doubt there were no facilities of modern printing and thus it was not possible to make indexing system as it is used now. But Muḥaddithīn developed from the first century a method for learning called Atrāf, that is to refer only to beginning of hadīth. Basing on this system many books were compiled which were used as indexing of ḥadīth. One of the best ones which is still in print is entitled Tuḥfatul Ashrāf by Mizzī.

When it comes to the biographies of the narrators, it may be divided into several categories.

a. Histories of a particular city. It was the fashion of the Muslim scholars that they used to write the history of the cities, which were actually the biographies of the famous scholars of the city. It need not be mentioned that reference to *Muḥaddithīn* in these histories has the lion's share. We may say in few early centuries, every city in Muslim world had not one history, but several, with many supplements. For example History of Baghdād by Khaṭīb (d. 463) which has been published in 14 volumes has several supplements such as supplement of Sam'ānī in 15 volumes, of Dubaithī in 3 volumes, of Najjār in 30 volumes.

History of Damascus by Ibn 'Asākir (d.571) in 80 volumes. Even this grand history has many supplements. Second method for compiling biographies was to compile a book on the narrators mentioned in certain books. For example biographies of the narrators whose name occurs in the book of Sahīh of Bukhārī, by Ibn Abu 'Adī, (d.365) Daraqutnī (d.385), Kalābādhī (d.398), al-Bājī (d.474) etc. This is not confined to Sahīh of Bukhārī only but most of the famous books on ahādīth had this sort of books.

The third method for compiling the biographies of narrators was to mention only one type of narrators such as trustworthy, (thiqat) such as

^{30.} Kattānī, Risala Mustarafa 94.

Thiqat by Ibn Hibbān, 'Ijlī, Ibn Shāhin etc. Or book on weak narrators. Even the weakness comes by different causes. For example: weakness due to failure of memory in old age. I may mention in this regard Kashf al-Iltibās bi man rumiya bil-Ikhtilāṭ by Ibn al-'Ajamī or a sort of weakness because the narrator used to practice Tadlis, in this regard one of the best books is Jāmi' at-Taḥṣīl by al-'Alā'ī, etc.

However there are other books which deal with the weak narrators in general. The most famous one is *al-Kāmil* by Ibn 'Adī, (d.365) still unpublished. One of the best books published on weak narrators is that of Dhahabi, called *Mizān al-I'tidāl*.

The fourth method for compiling the biographies of narrators was to mention the narrators irrespective of their weakness or trustworthiness or whether they lived in this city or that or whether their $a\hbar\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}th$ were found in one book or another. One may mention in this regard $T\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}kh$ of Ibn Ma'īn of Al-Fasawī, of Ibn Abū Khaithama, of Ibn Abū Ḥātim ar-Rāzī and at $T\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}kh$ al-Kab $\bar{\imath}r$ of Bukhārī. The later two books have been published in Hyderabad.

As the Companions of the Prophet had special reverence among the narrators, many books have been written on their biographies. One of the best ones is $Al\text{-}Is\bar{a}ba$ $F\bar{\imath}$ $Tamy\bar{\imath}z$ $as\text{-}Sah\bar{a}ba$ by Ibn Ḥajar. Sometimes men become famous through their nicknames, there are dictionaries of the people famous by nicknames exceeding fifty volumes called Majm'ul $al\text{-}Alq\bar{a}b$ by Ibn al-Fūtī.

Sometimes men are known by Kunya 'surname' like Abu al-Qāsim, Abū Ahmad, meaning father of Aḥmad. In Arab tradition, this is one of the means of respect, instead of naming him directly one might call the man father of so and so. There are many books written on $Kun\bar{a}$, because very frequently a narrator in $Isn\bar{a}d$ was mentioned by surname or Kunya.

For early narrators one of the best ones is Al- $Kun\bar{a}$ by Dulābī (d.310), and the book has been published in two volumes in Hyderābād, India.

There are so many other subjects and so many books that it needs a separate book on the subject. However, those who can read Arabic, may consult ar-Risāla al-Mustaṭrafa by Kattānī, the best book available on the bibliography dealing with the subject of hadīth and related materials.

^{31.} Ziriklī, A'lām IV, 124.

Bibliography

- Abū 'Awāna, Al-Musnad 1st edition, Hydrābād, India.
- Abū Dāwūd, Sunan, 4 vols. edited by M. M. 'Abdul Ḥamīd 2nd. emp. Cairo, 1369/1950. His letters to Maccan, ed. by M. Sabbāgh, Beirut 1395.
- Abū Nu'aim, Aḥmad b. 'Abdullah al-Iṣbahānī, Ḥilyat al-Awliyā', Khanjī, Cairo, 1932
- Abū 'Ubaid Al-Qāsim b. Sallām, Al-Amwāh, ed. by M. al-Fiqī, Cairo, 1353
- Azami, M. M. a—Introduction to Kītāb al Tamyīz, see Muslim, Tamyīz; b—Kuttāb an-Nabī, Beirut, 1394;
 - c-On Schacht's Origins of Muhammedan Jurisprudence (under print), University of Riyadh;
 - d-Studies in Early Ḥadīth Literature, Maktab Islami, Beirut, 1968
- Al-Balādhurī, Aḥmad b. Yaḥyā, Ansāb al-Ashrāf, 1st vol. ed. by Ḥamidulla, Cairo, 1959
- Al-Bukhārī, Muḥammad b. Ismā'īl, Al-Jāmi' as-Sahīh, printed with Fatḥul Bārī. Salafiya Press, Cairo
- Dăraquțnī, Sunan, 4 volumes, Cairo
- Dhahabī, Mīzānal-I'tidāl, 4 vol. ed. by al-Bijāwī, Cairo, 1382/1963
- Al-'Ibar ed. by Munajjid, Kuwait
- Siyar al-A'lām an-Nubalā'; 1-3 vols. ed. by Munajjid and other, Cairo, 1956
- Dārimī, 'Abdullah b. 'Abdur Raḥmān, Sunan, 2 vols. edited by M. A. Dahmān, Damascus, 1349
- Al-Haithamī, 'Alī b. Abū Bakr, Majma' az-Zawā'id, 10 vols., Qudsi, Cairo, 1352
- Hājī Khalīfa, Musatfa b. 'Abdulla, Kashf al-Zunūn 'an Asāmī al-Kutub wa al-Funun, Calcutta, 1865
- Al-Hākim, Muhammad b. 'Abdulla, a-Al-Madkhal, ed. and translated by J. Robson Luzack, London, 1953; b-Al-Mustadrak, 4 volumes, Hydrabad
- Hamīdullah, al-Wathā'iq al-Siyāsiya, 3rd ed., Beirut, 1968

- Ibn Abu Hatim al-Rāzī, 'Abdur Raḥmān, Al-Jarḥ Wa al-Ta'dīl with introduction, 9 volumes, Hydrabad, 1360-1373
- Ibn Ḥajar, a—Fathul Bārī, ed by M. Fuwād, 'Abdul Bāqī, Cairo, 1380; b—Hadyal-Sārī, 2 vols., Cairo, 1383; c—Al-Iṣāba fi Tamyīz as-Ṣahāba, 4 vols., Cairo, 1358
- Ibn Hanbal, Musnad, 6 vols., Cairo, 1313
- Ibn Ḥibbān, Muḥammad b. Ḥibbān al-Bustī, Ṣaḥīḥ ibn Ḥibbān, 1st vol. ed., Cairo, 1952; Majrūḥīn min al-Muḥaddithīn, Aya Sofya Ms. No. 496 Istanbul
- Ibn Isḥāq, Sīrat Rasulillāh, translated by A. Guillaume, Oxford Univ. Press, Karachi
- Ibn Kathir Ismā'īl, Tafsīr, 7 vols., Beirut, 1968
- Ibn Khair, Muḥammad b. Khair, Fihrist, Baghdad, 1963
- Ibn Mājā, Muḥammad b. Yazīd, Sunan 2 vols. ed. by M. F. A. Bāqī, Cairo, 1373
- Ibn Rāhwaih, Ishāq b. Rāhwaih, Musnad, Egyptian Library, Ms. No. 776, Cairo
- Ibn Rajab, 'Abdur Raḥmān b. Aḥmad al-Ḥanbalī, Sharḥ 'Ilal al-Tirmidhī, Zāhiriya Lib. Ms. Damascus
- Ibn Sa'd, Muḥammad b. Sa'd, Al-Ṭabaqāt al-Kabīr, 9 vols. ed. by E. Sachan, Leiden 1904-1940
- Jurjānī, Al-Sharīf 'Alī, Risāla fi fann Uṣūl al-Ḥadīth. Printed with Jami' Tirmidhī, Delhi, no date.
- Al-Jazā' irī, Tawjīh an-Nazar.
- Al-Kattānī, Muḥammad b. Ja'far Al-Risāla al-Mustatrafa, 3rd ed. Damascus, 1964
- Al-Khaţīb al-Baghdadī, Ahmad b. 'Alī, a—al-Kifāya fī 'Ilm al-Ḥadīth, Hydrabad, 1357; b—Al-Faqīh Wal Mutafaqqih, printed in Riyadh, 2 volumes; c—Al-Rihla ed. by Sāmarrā'ī; d—Al-Jāmi' fī Akhlāq ar-Rāwī wa 'Ādāb as-Sāmi', E. Alexandria Municipal Library Ms. Egypt
- Lane, E. W., Arabic English Lexicon, 8 volumes, Edinburgh, 1867
- Mālik b. Anas, Muwatta', 2 vols. ed. by M. F. 'Abdul Bāqī, Cairo, 1370
- Muslim b. Hajjāj al-Qushairī, a-Ṣaḥiḥ, ed. by M. F. 'Abdul Bāqī, Cairo, 1374; b-Tamyīz, ed. by M. M. Azami, Univ. of Riyadh, 1395
- Mu'allimī al-Yamānī, 'Abdur Raḥmān b. Yaḥyā, Al-Anwār al-Kāshifa, Cairo, 1378; Al-Tankīl, 2 vols., ed. by Nāsiruddīn Al-Albānī.

Nāsiruddīn, Asad, Musādir ash-Shi'r al Jāhilī, 2nd ed. Darul Ma'ārif, Cairo, 1962

Penrice, John, Dictionary and the Glossary of the Koran, London, 1873

D. Auvray, Introduction A La Bible, Paris

The Holy Qur'an: The Words of Allah

Suyutī, 'Abdur Raḥmān b. Abu Bakr

Tadrīb ar-Rāwī, ed. by A. R. Latīf, Cairo, 1379

Al-Durril-Manthür, 6 vols., Cairo.

Tirmidhī, Muḥammad b. 'Isā, Sunan, ed. by Shākir and others, 5 vols., Cairo Al-Zurqānī, Muhammad b. 'Abdul Bāqī, Sharḥ Muwaṭṭa', 4 vols., Cairo Zafar Ansāri, Islamic Juristic Terminology.